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ABSTRACT

In these papers the authors consider the changing societal context for education, examine concepts and research on existing recurrent education practice, and document constraints on and future prospects of inservice education for teachers. The introduction provides an overview of the teaching role in the paper, "Recurrent Education for Teachers, Some Research and Development Considerations" (H. Beare and T. van Raay). In part 1, entitled the "Changing Context," the following are presented: "Technological and Social Changes--Implications for the Recurrent Education of Teachers" (B. W. Smith); "Non Formal Education: Implications for the Recurrent Education of Teachers" (M. Gloster); "Changing Patterns of Student Participation, Student Expectations and Employment Opportunities for Students--An Overview of Some Implications for the Recurrent Education of Teachers" (P. Cameron); "The Changing Age, Composition and Structure of the Teaching Force--Some Implications for the Recurrent Education of Teachers" (K. Keogh); and "Commentary, Part 1" (M. T. Hewitson). Part 2, the "Theory and Practice of Recurrent Education and the Teaching Role," includes: "Recurrent Education and the Professions--Some Research Findings" (E. A. Sommerlad); "Recurrent Education Needs Arising from Changes in Parent, Community and Employer Links with Schools" (D. Pettit); "Teacher Participation: Learning on the Job" (G. Evans); "A Case-Study of Four Religious Teaching Orders: Implications for Teacher Participation and Recurrent Education Needs" (E. Whitehead); "Recurrent Education for Teachers: A Knowledge Utilization Approach" (P. B. Botsman); "Concepts of Recurrent Education: Philosophies, Policies and Implications for Teaching Practice in Technical and Further Education in Australia" (M. Buxton and P. Keating); and "Commentary, Part 2" (M. T. Hewitson). Part 3, "Present Constraints and Future Prospects" (M. T. Hewitson), examines the role of research and development in relation to the future prospects of recurrent teacher education. (JD)



S.P.

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Recurrent Education and the Teaching Role

M. Hewitson

ERDC Report No. 34

Education Research and Development Committee

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Education Research and Development Committee

RECURRENT EDUCATION AND THE
TEACHING ROLE

A Collection of Papers prepared for the ERDC
Seminar on Recurrent Education and the Teaching
Role held at Monash University, Melbourne,
in November 1980

and including

Commentaries on the Papers and Discussions

Mal Hewitson
(Editor)

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PREFACE

Increasing attention has recently focussed on issues related to the inservice education of teachers. Early in 1980, the Education Research and Development Committee (ERDC), acting on the advice of its "Recurrent Education" Priority Area Advisory Group, was granted approval by the Minister for Education (Mr Wal Fife) to organise a seminar on recurrent education with special reference to the teaching role. The purpose was to explore concepts and findings arising from relevant research studies and "state of the art" papers funded or commissioned by ERDC. The seminar was also timely because it was known that the inservice education of teachers was an important theme of the report of the National Inquiry into Teacher Education which would be available for deliberation by seminar participants.

The seminar was duly held at Monash University in November, 1980. To facilitate discussion, the participants were restricted in numbers but selected to cover a wide range of educational activities. Papers for discussion were distributed prior to the seminar and stimulated lively debate. Considerable unanimity emerged on the importance of recurrent education for teachers, but some favoured action rather than further research. What were the implications for ERDC?

The future role for ERDC has since been solved. Following the Lynch Committee's "Review of Commonwealth Functions" it no longer exists. The issues, however, have not disappeared. The recommendations of the National Inquiry into Teacher Education seem to have engendered little official action. Yet if Australia desires a quality educational system, this can only be achieved by developing high quality teachers who are themselves exemplars of life-long learning.

Although outcomes of the seminar were not in the form of definitive answers, many important issues were raised and are recorded in this publication which deserves reading by all with an interest in education. To all who took part in the seminar, grateful acknowledgement of their various contributions is made. Dr Mal Hewitson's subsequent editorial work and personal contribution to this report of seminar proceedings are also gratefully acknowledged.

S.S. Dunn
past-Chairman, ERDC
June, 1981

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The editor wishes to acknowledge the help received from members of the ERDC Priority Area Advisory Group on Recurrent Education who formed a subcommittee to advise on the structuring of this book. He wishes further to thank members for their constructive comments on the first draft of the editorial contributions, and, in particular, Mr S.S. Dunn (Chairman, ERDC) and Dr J. Bowes (Professional Assistant to the Chairman, ERDC).

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Appendix: List of Participants, ERDC Seminar on Recurrent
Education the the Teaching Role, Monash University,
November 1980.

"Once upon a time there was a frog. But he really wasn't a frog. He was a prince who looked and felt like a frog. A wicked witch had cast a spell on him. But since when do cute chicks kiss frogs? So there he sat, an unkissed prince in frog form. But miracles happen. One day a beautiful maiden grabbed him up, and gave him a big smack. Crash! Boom! Zap!

There he sat, a handsome prince. And you know the rest. They lived happily ever after.

So what is task of schools? To kiss frogs, of course."

..Anonymous..

(Submitted by Mr J. Casey.)

RECURRENT EDUCATION AND THE TEACHING ROLE

INTRODUCTION

Background to the Seminar

Under the terms of its charter, the Education Research and Development Committee (ERDC) was given the responsibility of advising the Minister for Education on priorities in education research ... and on any other means for the improvement, development and application of educational research. Thus in 1976-77, ERDC established a number of Priority Area Advisory Groups (PAAG's) whose tasks included defining and mapping the priority area under consideration with a view to initiating programs of research and development which would take account of existing and anticipated needs at the state and national levels. The purpose was not merely to ensure that areas of high priority were not neglected but also to achieve greater co-ordination and integration of the total national R & D effort in education.

One of the PAAG's concerned recurrent education. Following the release of the Report of the Committee of Inquiry into Education and Training (1979) and given the impending report of the National Inquiry into Teacher Education, members of the Recurrent Education PAAG recommended that it was opportune for ERDC to mount a seminar akin to the one held on Research into Teacher Education a year or so earlier (see Hewitson, 1979). As Mr S.S. Dunn (Chairman, ERDC) explained, "The original idea was to give a wide definition to the teaching role and include industrial and management education, but further thought limited the focus of the seminar essentially to the formal system, although the implications of the rise of non-formal education activities for the formal system were certainly not ignored."

Mr Dunn continued:

Members of the PAAG and the seminar planning group had a firm conviction that changes in society were inevitable and that these would make it essential for all involved in education to recognize that, when applied to teachers, recurrent education means more than inservice education aimed at improving competencies for existing tasks. Likely changes in technology, in student expectations, in the composition and structure of the teaching force, in the role of the community in relation to its schools, in staff relations within schools and school systems, all mean that today's teachers need to be life-long learners, willing and able to prepare for new roles during their teaching career.

As wide a range as possible of perspectives on the issues involved in recurrent education and the teaching role was sought by inviting participants from an appropriate cross-section of the education spectrum. A list of participants and the institutions from which they came is given in the Appendix. In addition, papers based on relevant research funded over the years by ERDC and a number of commissioned

position papers were distributed to participants prior to the seminar. Together, these papers constitute a set of readings which consider the changing societal context, examine concepts and research on existing recurrent education practice and document constraints on and future prospects of inservice education for teachers.

REFERENCES

Committee of Inquiry into Education and Training (B Williams, Chairman). Report Education, Training and Employment (3 Volumes). Canberra: AGPS, 1979.

Hewitson, M. (Ed) Research into Teacher Education: The Practical Teaching Skills. ERDC Report No 19. Canberra: AGPS, 1979.

ORGANISATION OF THIS VOLUME

This book comprises the introductory chapter followed by three separate Parts.

Part I, "The Changing Context", explores the changing societal context in which Australian education and schooling are embedded. Four of the papers prepared for the seminar are presented as a sequence of readings depicting Australian society as it attempts to cope with successive impacts of change and technological advance with particular reference to education and the teaching role. The effects of change are reflected as needs for more education, especially pronounced in the burgeoning of non-formal, non-systemic, community-based responses; as needs of students and teachers yet to be met in formal education systems; and as needs of an economic nature revealed by supply, demand and trend analyses of the teaching force and the implications thereof.

Following the four papers, a commentary is provided of the editor's reflections on the papers themselves and the seminar discussions which they generated. As might be expected, a fairly high level of generality characterises Part I.

The same format is maintained for Part II of the book, "The Theory and Practice of Recurrent Education and the Teaching Role". Six papers are included here as a series of readings in which many of the issues introduced in Part I are treated with greater specificity and detail. The concept of recurrent education is analysed and implications for teaching as an occupation and for administrators and teachers are drawn. Practical barriers and psychological constraints to the provision of and demand for recurrent education are investigated. A number of comparisons and contrasts between schools and the Technical and Further Education (TAFE) sector provide both a focus for summarising much of what has been said and an opportunity for gaining further insights on problems associated with the provision of recurrent education. Once again, the papers are followed by a post facto editorial commentary.

Part III of the book is a single chapter which seeks to draw together the outcomes of the seminar by means of a conceptual framework within which the area of "recurrent education and the teaching role" may be viewed. A final section briefly examines the role of research and development in light of present constraints on and the future prospects of recurrent education for teachers.

The specific focus

The first paper to be presented is that of Beare and Van Raay. It was commissioned by ERDC to set the scene, as it were, for the seminar proper, i.e., to give an overview of what is known and what needs to be known in terms of research on and evolution of the teaching role. The authors look both back and forward in their analysis of the teaching role and draw consequential implications for the recurrent education of teachers. The paper is appropriately reproduced, therefore, in this introductory chapter.

RECURRENT EDUCATION FOR TEACHERS: SOME RESEARCH AND
DEVELOPMENT CONSIDERATIONS

Hedley Beare and Tina van Raay

INTRODUCTION

Now that the Auchmuty Report on Teacher Education in Australia has been published, following an extensive inquiry over many months by the national committee, and bearing in mind that the Report concentrates attention on the continuing education of teachers, one could be charged with temerity or foolishness (or both) to attempt a paper on the same topic. Surely Auchmuty tells all. In another respect, however, this paper is helped by the Auchmuty Report, which now lays out a continuum for teacher education in Australia including both preservice and inservice studies. We can therefore afford to be speculative and scattershot in an effort to illuminate and to stimulate. Out of both exercises may emerge clarification of where research and development are needed in order to make the continuing education of teachers a coherent and focussed exercise. Our literature search, by no means exhaustive, has unearthed much that is unimpressive, impressionistic and polemical; while this kind of material may have passed scrutiny up to now, we believe that conditions will change during the 1980's to such an extent that the education industry cannot afford to be so unscientific and undisciplined. We believe that folklore and speculation must now be replaced by analysis and verification, which in turn will convert flying by the seat of one's pants into aviation by means of technology and accurate plotting. For in spite of the substantial increase in research activity into educational processes over recent decades, many practitioners still operate by divination and by observing the flight of the birds. The synthesis of mapping the terrain being explored by individual prospectors, of coordinating the reference points, or of devising the technological devices must be done before educators will feel confident to replace the "prayer wheel" reckoning they use in their educational travelling. It could well be that we have just reached at the beginning of the 1980's the point where this task can be done in the area of teacher education.

It is impossible within the scope of this paper to demonstrate precisely what societal demands will affect systems, institutions, teachers and the nature of education itself over the next decade. But we do have some clues about what kind of a teacher is needed to cope with the likely massive changes, both societal and thus educational.

Clearly, the decade of the eighties will require copable rather than merely capable teachers. The notion of the capable teacher is static, implying one who is doing a good job now according to the extant definition of what a teacher is. A copable teacher is one who can and will adapt and will thus be always capable. In order to have copable teachers, then, it is imperative that we help them acquire through recurrent education the instruments, resources and maps needed for them to question, research, evaluate, devise, and implement educational processes and programs.

That recurrent education is needed is therefore unquestioned; that its record in the past for effecting long-term change is not unblemished; that it is, like the weather, stimulating much discussion but insufficient coordinated action, is apparent.

Strategic plans for recurrent education based on research and a new set of basic assumptions appear now to have high priority. Rex Meyer,¹ quoting Faure, stated in a paper presented to the National Conference on Inservice Education in 1974:

One of the essential tasks for educators at present is to change the mentalities and qualifications inherent in all professions; thus they should be the first to be ready to rethink and change the criteria and basic situation of the teaching profession, in which the job of educating and stimulating students is steadily superseding that of simply giving instruction.

Teachers trained today will still be exercising their profession after the year 2000.

Conditions in which teachers are trained should be profoundly changed so that, essentially, they become educators rather than specialists in transmitting pre-established curricula; the principle of a first, accelerated training stage, followed by inservice training cycles, should be adopted.

Six years later, this view has now been endorsed by the Auchmuty Report, and just at the time when conditions have changed almost radically.

THE PAST AND THE PRESENT

In a recent paper, Jecks² points out that a plateau in the growth in education was predictable as early as 1968, but the signs were not taken as seriously as they should have been because the notion seemed to be so unreal. The present no growth situation has no precedent in the period

since 1945. Indeed, so intense was the growth in the period after 1945 that parents, administrators and especially teachers became habituated to trends which it was quite unrealistic to expect to be maintained. The trends established the following assumptions which have gone unchallenged for years:

- . that new teachers could undertake all the requirements of the profession on the basis of having gained normal training certificates, provided they attended occasional teachers seminars or sporadic inservice to keep them informed about developments in their field;
- . that rapid promotion for able teachers was assured;
- . that an able teacher could expect to become a school principal while he was in his thirties;
- . that new promotions positions would become available year by year;
- . that teacher movement from school to school within a state or territory was easy and always an option;
- . that every year would see the opening of a new crop of schools; and
- . that, in consequence, school buildings and equipment would be constantly updated, remodelled, or replaced and that the latest designs would be continuously appearing in new school structures;
- . that school staffs would always contain a significant proportion of new recruits and young teachers in their twenties.

The mid-seventies arrested these trends, almost suddenly. Teachers and school systems are now confronted by a new set of conditions which can be met only by a new set of strategies. Thus, Jecks argues, we face "the need to maintain vitality in a school system where there is little, or no growth", indeed where there may be a negative growth or recession.

At the beginning of the 1980's educators face a dramatic change from the trend lines of the previous two decades; expansion has been replaced by contraction - in terms of teacher numbers, student enrolments, resource levels, finance, number of schools, and public confidence.

What of the changes about teachers themselves? Teacher expectation is an area surely now warranting exploration. In the past when education was expanding, we easily accepted the premise that there were rewards for the teacher if he did engage in furthering his own education. It could be argued easily that since the teacher's professional objective is to sponsor effective learning, the teacher should himself be a learner all his life. The teacher ought to be liberally educated, ought to have a curiosity and thirst for knowledge and ought to have a genuine respect for research-based theory and research-based practice. Now that the context has changed so dramatically, does the premise remain axiomatic

and can one assume that teachers will act as they did in the past? Perhaps they might, but there is no certainty.

Meanwhile, there has been an increasing realisation of the inadequacy of the knowledge base which supports the education of teachers, as well as an awareness that some education research should focus on problems currently faced by teachers in their classrooms, that teachers themselves should be involved in evaluation and research activities, and that changes in theory should lead to changes in practice.

It is just at the time when some of the significant variables change that research could prove so profitable, and it would be a pity if we lost the opportunity which now presents itself. Time does not wait, however. It is only in the past year or two that all Australian school systems have found themselves in the no growth, contraction, or inner-city decline syndrome, and researchers have no more than a year or so to capitalise on the suddenly changed context.

Before investigating the societal or educational changes that will affect the recurrent education of teachers, we need to be clear about what we intend to include under "Recurrent Education".

Recurrent Education. The term "recurrent" presents us with problems for its Latin roots imply a re-run, a repetition, a re-visiting of the running track around which one has already sprinted. As usage has weakened the word, however, it now means "occurring again or often or periodically".³ Recurrent education has come to mean an education which never ceases. "Continuing Education" is probably a better term to express this idea, although that itself has now acquired the particular meaning of education which is sequenced. Continuing "education" does not incorporate the notion of making a new start, perhaps on a new subject, a meaning which recurrent education can embrace. Recurrent education of teachers, therefore, implies that the teacher's own education is never finished. Filene⁴ stated in the early 1900's, "If a man's education is finished, he is finished." It is a premise which is not difficult to accept for the teacher and which has now almost become an axiom about the teacher's vocation.

The term recurrent education now seems likely to replace the term "Inservice" education which has come to be associated with the following three sets of activities:

1. Formal continuing study (often part-time) leading to the award of certificates, diplomas and degrees.
2. Less formal education through conferences and workshops which do not carry an academic credential.
3. Activities conducted by professional associations of teachers.

The policies in operation in these three areas were largely created by recent history. We should therefore be aware of what that history is, and recognise that in order to make constructive plans for the future we may have to break free from the framework derived from the past. Let us therefore turn to each of the three aspects.

Formal Courses of Study. During the 1950's there was a critical teacher shortage throughout Australia. All school systems, government and non-government, were searching desperately for people prepared to take on teaching duties whether they had a formal teacher education credential or not. During this period short courses of training in Teachers Colleges were commonplace. Indeed many courses of duration less than 12 months were still in operation. They became known as "pressure-cooker courses" but it was assumed that the teachers who graduated from these programs were unfinished products; by various means they were encouraged to undertake further studies which would gain them certification as teachers. So, too, with the one-year courses of training which existed into the 1960's.

During the sixties, however, courses of pre-service teacher education progressively became longer in duration so that by the end of the decade two-year courses were being phased out and replaced by courses which were a minimum of three years in length. It had also been a period of extensive experimentation in teacher education courses with a variety of concurrent and end-on courses being trialled. Thus it was inevitable that by the beginning of the 1970's there had grown up around Australia numbers of formal courses to enable teachers to upgrade their qualifications. Generally, completion of these courses led to the teachers gaining three-year-trained status and a salary increment.

When the Commonwealth Teaching Service came into being in 1972, it was able to become the first teaching service in Australia which would require three years of pre-service teacher education as a pre-requisite for entry to the service. It of course took over teachers from South Australia and New South Wales who happened to be teaching in the two territories at the time and who had less than the three-year credential, but it also provided the facility whereby these teachers could upgrade to three-year-trained status. Three years of pre-service training is in 1980 a universal requirement around Australia for entry to a teaching position. As we enter the 1980's the Auchmuty Report now advocates four years of pre-service training as the minimum.⁵

Given this recent history, therefore, it seems a fair hypothesis that a large number of teachers would have serious professional deficiencies in their backgrounds, and particularly in the following two domains:

- (a) Methodology and Learning Theory. For one thing, learning theory underwent enormous change in the light of developing theories in psychology. On a second plane, curriculum theory altered the shape of courses on offer in primary and secondary schools. And thirdly, with changes in school building design and in the make-up of the teaching service, new teaching methods and techniques had to be learnt, not the least by those teachers with the longest experience.
- (b) Subject Content. The two-year course of teacher education for secondary teachers (for example, in New South Wales) prevailed throughout the 1960's. Clearly, then, many secondary teachers did not have deep exposure to the subjects taught throughout secondary schools, even in the subject areas in which they were deemed qualified to teach. It could be argued that at primary and lower secondary level this state of affairs could be tolerated and that

it was only at the upper secondary levels that the expert in subject areas was required to ensure that the foundation being laid for post-school studies was done with full awareness of the nuances which tertiary students would need to comprehend. This view appeared to prevail throughout the 1960's and until the mid-70's, but appears now to have been largely discredited. For a teacher who lays a child's foundation for mathematics without a feeling for, or a full appreciation of, the field of mathematics could well be damaging the student's career in almost irretrievable ways.

What do we know about teacher backgrounds, their developed cognitive base for teaching, their significant professional gaps and their own perceived training needs?

Inservice Conference and Workshops. At the same time as the developments were occurring in formal courses of training there were enormous developments in the inservice education of teachers.

Inservice programs began in Australia as upgrading courses provided by the employing authorities. Thus during the 1950's most of the inservice education courses on offer within Education Departments addressed themselves to teachers who had minimal pre-service training. Indeed, some of these courses carried credentials to enable the teacher to qualify for higher status within that state's service. The onset of the 1960's saw an increasing tendency to provide "refresher courses" to enable those teachers of relatively long standing to re-visit the areas they had covered years before in their pre-service training in order to re-learn the theory or to have their perceptions of those theories brought up to date. Even so, inservice courses had the same orientation as in the 1950's namely, to concentrate on the less adequate teachers in the service and to bring them up to a satisfactory norm.

As the 1960's developed, with the knowledge explosion and new discoveries in the techniques of teaching, inservice education developed a new orientation. It became the medium whereby developments could be planned, new curricula could be introduced and key teachers trained. Courses began to concentrate on project development, especially curriculum planning. In short, it became the medium for planned change in education. The workshops began to involve the most capable teachers whereas those in the 1950's had centred on the least capable. Indeed the conferences which were attended "by invitation" attracted special prestige for they enabled school systems to single out the highly effective teachers and to use them as planners.

The whole teacher development area was given added stimulus in the early 1970's by massive Schools Commission funding for teacher development. This further emphasised the visibility of leading teachers since Schools Commission funds encouraged them to take the initiative in organising teacher development activities. But the Schools Commission funding produced an unfortunate side effect. State school systems which had until then invested their own funds in this area allowed Schools Commission funding to take over in a way that would allow them to divert their earlier teacher development funds into other areas. Thus the teacher development funding of the Schools Commission many not have produced as marked a change as was first intended. It could be argued,

in fact, that by the time the Schools Commission funding arrived, inservice education activities were reaching their optimal peak in the states, and to have extended the range would have taken teachers out of the classrooms beyond defensible levels and would have had the odd effect of damaging rather than enhancing the educational programs available for children. Do we know what was the effect of funding patterns on inservice education? Where do teachers see the best benefits? What courses do they at present value?

Australian school systems have never been served with the plethora of inservice activities available to teachers in the United Kingdom and the United States of America. In the mid-seventies, for example, a principal of a school in Britain stated that his staff had access to more than 60 agencies all providing inservice courses for teachers. He noted that there was almost no need for the local authorities to provide inservice education at all, but he would have been sceptical about their motivation had they done so.

It is true to say that the CAEs and universities in Australia have been relatively slow to move into the lucrative market of short-term courses for teachers. In the interests of their own prestige, and because of the methods of funding, universities and CAEs have tended to concentrate on degree and diploma courses for which they had plenty of takers, with teachers upgrading their qualifications, and have eschewed short courses, summer institutes, summer schools, such as those provided by universities in the United States. The Auchmuty Report may in fact stimulate significant change and if it does, we hope that researchers will be prompt to document what happens and the effects.

Professional Associations. Professional teacher associations have existed for many decades. They have always involved leading teachers who are characteristically the ones to occupy the executive offices in the association. One of the mainstream activities of such associations has been the organization of local, regional, state and national conferences, usually all held at least annually.

A danger in this conference format has been that teachers habitually attend conferences in the same subject area year by year. Thus one finds English teachers attending regional English conferences, the State conference once a year, and a national conference during one of their holidays. It could be argued that this tendency has introduced and maintains an imbalance in the recurrent education of teachers. Yet the professional teacher associations have made a marked impact on teaching in Australia by sponsoring visits by keynote speakers: some of the most important educators to visit Australia in recent years have been brought out under the auspices of particular teacher associations.

There is now a wide range of professional associations and they have had an impressive input, albeit informally, into teacher development in Australia. Being free from the tangles of industrial unions, they appear to have made an important contribution to the professionalisation of teaching. They have also made visible some of the best practitioners, and they have pioneered between academics and practitioners areas of cooperation which would not otherwise have been opened up. Indeed the liaison between the staffs of tertiary institutions and the practitioners

in the classroom has in the major part been engineered through professional teacher associations. Documentation of the activities and impact of these associations is a fertile field for some researcher.

CURRENT AREAS FOR ANALYSIS

As a consequence of this recent history, there are now several important areas for investigation and analysis from which policies concerning the recurrent education of teachers may well be refined.

The Teacher's Day. Firstly, the balance of a teacher's daily activities appears to have changed quite clearly. In terms of teacher workloads the continuing education of the teacher is now part and parcel of his job. It is idle to argue that in service education or part-time study takes the teacher away from his classroom. It is as valid to argue that lesson preparation and marking student papers divert his attention from contact with his students. For no teacher worth his salt will now continue to be excellent for long unless he continues to study. His subject content changes before his eyes, educational methodology constantly changes in the light of developing learning theory, and technological advances render some of his activities obsolescent almost week by week. Continuing study, upgrading qualifications, learning by formal and informal means spell survival to the teacher.

If the recurrent education of the teacher is as much part of his job as lesson preparation or marking, as has now become the case with group planning, then it must be accommodated within the normal context of the teacher's day, however that is defined. Not only must allowances be made for such study, but they must be made in such a way that it is clear how essential such study is to be effectiveness of the teacher. The area is full of possibilities for research, especially into teacher attitudes and into parental acceptance and perceptions.

Programmatic Study. As recurrent education is so important for the teacher, it should be balanced, comprehensive, and articulated well. Each teacher needs a regimen for his own professional development which ensures that year by year he is kept abreast of the latest developments in learning theory, the recent advances in the subject areas which he is expected to teach, or which he specialises in, new methodologies of teaching including technological change, and the most recent advances in social theory and in human organizations. We wonder how many teachers currently in Australian schools have a satisfactory program of professional development in all these essential areas. With the knowledge and technology explosion, the expansion of human interaction and changing expectations about schools, recurrent education will need to satisfy the need for more knowledge and understanding as well as assist teachers' adaptation to their changing roles in education.

We therefore turn to recent history and the societal conditions which form a backdrop for a discussion of teacher development methodologies.

PERSPECTIVES OF SOCIETAL CONDITIONS

The changes which have impact on the education of teachers are both planned and unplanned. As Massanari⁶ points out:

Some grow from societal conditions which encroach on education generally; others reflect developments within the profession itself. Many societal issues have shaped attitudes towards schools as social institutions; they influence expectation levels of parents regarding what the purposes of schools should be and what schools should accomplish; they have a bearing on school curricula and the qualifications of the personnel who work in them, and they help to shape attitudes of pupils toward schools and the worthwhileness of education.

Some of the social issues which have an implicit relationship with education are not new to us but, according to Massanari, we need to be constantly aware of them. Some of these are:

- . a realisation that the world's natural resources are limited and that economic growth may not automatically be beneficial;
- . an increased concern about energy shortages;
- . anxiety about unemployment and inflation;
- . an insecurity about the nature of changes which accelerated technology will bring; and
- . a turning toward philosophical and spiritual stances which focus attention on man himself so that he may cope with the turmoil and uncaring nature of a rollercoaster society.

Some social issues affect education directly and focus on patterns of the past which need to be drastically altered. Some of these are:

- . an unremitting pressure to equalise opportunities among socio-economic and racial sub-cultures in our society, and between the sexes;
- . the continuing expectation that schools should cure a variety of ills (through, for example, alcohol/drug education, nutrition and sex education);
- . a growing demand from parents, employers and the general public for accountability regarding educational outcomes; and
- . pervasive feelings of helplessness in that individuals have little power to redirect or influence their own future.

What revisions, we wonder, have taken place or will take place in teaching methodology, lesson content, values orientations, and teacher attitudes, and in teacher study patterns, in the face of these societal pressures?

INSERVICE TEACHER EDUCATION: SOME PERSPECTIVES

In his paper on "Changing Conditions and Perspectives about Them", Massanari⁷ points out that, in the past, "the most common response was for educational institutions and organisations to attempt to keep pace with changing conditions, make piecemeal adjustments in programs and rely on the periodic retooling of personnel." But this approach would appear to have only a relatively shallow effect. Because institutional and system-wide change tends to occur slowly, adaptation often lags behind. Do we have research that documents the extent of the lag? In the 1980's, it will be increasingly difficult to keep pace if the changes (both societal and educational) occur at an accelerated rate. With these small scale adaptations, new professional roles in teacher education are unlikely to be created, with accretionary modifications of present roles resulting in order to accommodate the new as well as the existing demands. Perhaps many educators need to blow the dust off the known research findings which sit unused on the shelves and apply them to improving their educational practice for the future. How does one sponsor such a re-search of research?

In an endeavour to give new importance to the continuous education of the teacher, the Auchmuty Report recommends that one term's paid study leave each seven years, plus the opportunity for every teacher to take part in at least five days of inservice courses out of school hours each year, is the most effective way to ensure that teachers keep up to date while ensuring minimal disruption to classes⁸.

This report, no doubt, will open up discussion on how much inservice education is necessary to be effective. Its suggestions about what elements constitute effective inservice education invite trial, analysis and development.

How is Inservice Education Perceived? It is obvious from the literature that there are disturbing differences in the way inservice activities are perceived. Johnston⁹ comments that, too often, inservice programs are considered worthless by teacher educators on the one hand, who complain that the teachers only want gimmicks, and by teachers on the other hand, who complain that inservice instruction is irrelevant or meaningless. The problem appears to be that teachers and teacher educators have difficulty in reaching consensus about the needs and purposes of in-service and professional development programs. As Fillion explains,¹⁰ teachers want solutions to immediate problems whereas teacher educators look more to the long-run or specific research issues which contribute to theory.

In the next decade the gaps between teacher, teacher educators and the community will need to be closed. How is it best done?

Harris, Bessent and McIntyre¹¹ and Dunkley¹² argue that inservice programs of the past, whether college or centre-based, have been largely ineffective. They may have had a quantifiable effect on teaching teachers what they did not know but very little effect in teaching teachers to behave as they did not behave.

Samuel Johnson¹³ said of the Scots that "their learning is like bread in a besieged town; every man gets a little, but no man gets a full meal". How well does this observation apply to teacher inservice education as we have come to know it today? What criteria, then, constitute a well-planned effective inservice program?

In 1977 Johnston¹⁴ listed the following as a framework for quality inservice programs:

1. The inservice program should deal with long-term issues.
2. The teachers should be involved in planning, coordinating, implementing, and evaluating the program.
3. Follow-up supportive services should be provided.
4. The program should be geared to the expressed needs of the teachers.
5. Teachers should work in partnership with the teacher trainers to discover a process by which teachers can continue to grow.
6. Varieties of resources and research information should be available.
7. Throughout the program the teacher should be seen as the key variable in any instructional episode.

Frankly, this kind of analysis appears doctrinaire and unconvincing. What if one dropped out one or several of the criteria? And what criterion is the most critical or least critical? And even then one is left with the impression of shallowness, sceptical about the facile generalizations and the unexamined depths.

An analytical review of the literature on inservice teacher education conducted by Nicholson, Joyce, Parker and Waterman¹⁵ concluded with two substantive findings. The first is that the literature has been concerned almost entirely with asking the question of what there is in new programs, to the virtual exclusion of asking why and how programs succeed or fail. In other words, the process of inservice teacher education has been neglected in the research literature in favour of the content of inservice teacher education. The second conclusion is that the traditional inservice teacher education programs have consisted almost entirely of information gathering activities, attending workshops, taking college courses, reading professional journals, discussing methods with other teachers, and attending professional conventions. Programs that stress application of that information or practice of techniques with suitable feedback are distinctly in the minority. Nicholson et al. examine the more prominent findings for some clues about what have been deemed "successful inservice education".

The findings group into two sections: Firstly the who, where, how and why of inservice education; and secondly, the choices of approach to the structure of inservice teacher education.

Who should teach the courses? The survey suggests that success occurs in the following descending order: the teacher himself, another practising teacher, a supervisor or administrator and a university professor.

The same conclusion is borne out by both Rubin¹⁶ and Dillon¹⁷. Rubin noted that "a practising teacher is the best possible trainer of teachers", and Dillon explains, "Teachers feel that practicality and credibility are more easily assured if a fellow practitioner conducts the staff development activity".

Where should the course be held? The survey indicates that the school itself seems to be a better place for inservice teacher education than a higher education institution.

How? What methods should be used? The means of instruction of inservice education do not seem to be an important variable in the effectiveness of the program, with two exceptions. Videotape methods, especially micro-courses, are generally more successful than the average; and programs based upon books report a high degree of success.

Why? What course objectives bring success? Programs which aim to improve teachers' knowledge tend to be more successful than those directed toward teachers' performance, which in turn fare better than programs trying to modify teachers' attitudes. A high degree of success was indicated for programs that strike a measured balance between theory (knowledge) and practice (performance).

Another tendency noted was that success increases as the objective is more precisely specified.

Finally, two other observations worth noting in terms of "successful inservice" are that changing the performance of teachers is accomplished more often, proportionately, than changing the performance of pupils; and changing the performance of a group is easier to achieve than changing the performance of an individual teacher.

Nicholson et al.¹⁸ drew attention in their review to Lawrence's study¹⁹ in which he identifies seven characteristics that seem to reflect the trends in the rest of the literature:

1. Individual programs are more likely to accomplish their objectives than programs which provide the same activities for all participants. Individualisation, furthermore, should not be limited to variations merely in pace and sequence of materials.
2. Programs in which teachers take some active role (e.g. generating a set of instructional materials) are more likely to be successful than those in which teachers are limited to a passive or receptive role.
3. Programs based on a demonstration of materials or technique, combined with a supervised trial followed by some form of feedback, are more likely to be successful than those in which information or instructions are learned and stored for future application.

4. Programs in which teachers provide assistance to each other are more likely to be successful than those in which teachers work entirely on their own.
5. Programs occurring as part of an overall staff development plan or as a general effort of the school are more likely to be successful than one-shot efforts.
6. Programs of emergent design, in which teachers themselves choose at least some of the goals and activities as the course proceeds, are more likely to be successful than programs which are entirely pre-planned.
7. Programs which are self-initiated and self-designed tend to have a high rate of success. Perhaps this point is, or should be, self evident. As Rubin asserts, "Ultimately, however, we must have teachers who are self-directive, who participate in the organization of their own self-improvement".²⁰

Yet all this strikes one as being superficial, somewhat static and rather too assured about what recurrent education is. Furthermore, it reflects the mode of the past two decades where in spite of continuing criticism of schools there appears too confident a fixation about what the teacher is and what he or she should develop into.

EMERGENT ROLES FOR TEACHERS AND INSERVICE TEACHER EDUCATORS.

Emerging Roles. Massanari, Drummond and Houston²¹ come to the conclusion that the changing conditions in society and in education will produce significant modifications to the accepted professional roles for teachers and teacher educators and, in some cases, may actually create new ones. It is already evident that the teacher role is beginning to be modified, and that new roles are emerging, although the ramifications of these changes have not yet been fully comprehended or codified by the education profession. As a consequence of changing teacher models, it is certain that changes in the roles of teacher educators will also be necessary, especially if inservice education programs are to be made responsive to the current and future needs of school personnel. Many of the teacher roles that have been projected are not new, but the acceptance and assumption of these roles by teachers will be difficult unless there is a conscious effort to train and support the people willing to try them.

The emerging roles, of course, reflect changes occurring in schools, educational systems and society. No person is an island, no teacher, no teacher of teachers. Each is affected in varying degree by worldwide trends and movements. More directly, teachers are influenced by the organisation in which they work, the persons with whom they interact and the processes in the curriculum.

Houston²² noted that since interdependence and systems are crucial aspects of organised education, it is necessary to look at the teacher in context where three elements directly influence professional performance - the educational programs of the system; the organisation of the system; and the persons involved in the system.

Concerning the system's programs, Houston comments that over the years, by design or by default, schools have been assigned certain missions by society. The school's curriculum has become packed with an increasing array of courses and concepts, including values education, process-oriented science programs, multicultural and transition education, and so on. Recently, counter movements have attempted to weed out what some perceive as non-essentials in the curriculum. Thus what is included in the school's program influences what kind of actor the teacher is.

Similarly the organisation of the school and the school system continues to change as new concepts are introduced such as the open space classroom, school-based curriculum, team teaching and individualised instruction. Parents and community agencies have become more involved in school affairs, making the communication and decision-making processes more complicated.

So the teacher's role is altered by organisational and procedural frameworks. And thirdly, the other operators in the system share the system's functions, and the way those functions are subdivided and apportioned affects the tasks which teachers perform.

Out of this analysis emerges a developmental task of the scholar, namely, building new role configurations, new networks and new training schemata. The pressures to sponsor more purposeful and better articulated recurrent education of teachers could well lead to a destruction of the concept of the traditional teacher and the discovery of several optional models for the professional educators. Let us consider three options for teacher recurrent education which could be trialled or explored.

School-Based Teacher Education. The term 'school-based' connotes that the inservice education is carried on in the school and does not infer that the inservice programs are necessarily 'school-focussed'. However, since programs with whole staff participation have proved most successful, the school venue may tend to focus the process on the school and the school community. It would be an interesting and important point to investigate, for it poses the same distinction of whether a medical school in a university is a better venue for producing effective doctors than is a major teaching hospital. And in more precise terms, which elements in the doctor's training are best carried out in a hospital?

Given the assumption that a course of inservice education is to be carried out within the school, who is to shoulder the responsibility for it? Clearly it could be run and resourced by the teachers themselves, or a school-based teacher educator, or an outside consultant, or a teacher educator from a college or university, or members of the school community (e.g. from the health centres, arts councils etc), or a practising teacher from another school.

What is likely to emerge, however, given the realities of the school, is someone who will be assigned the role of school-based teacher educator, who, according to Houston, is a professional who has responsibility for either pre-service, inservice or continuing education and whose primary base of operations is in the primary or the secondary school.²³ In his

paper, Houston suggests that a school-based teacher educator hold either a full-time or part-time position in each school. This suggests either one extra staff member per school, or a re-allocation of functions to enable the person to assume the role within the school's normal staffing allocation.

Such a concept can be applied in our schools but would require some creative reorganisation of teaching staff. Could a normally trained teacher, given the motivation, the opportunity and the responsibility, become a teacher educator? Following a review of some ninety seven studies of inservice education, Lawrence²⁴ predictably concluded:

School-based programs in which teachers participate as helpers to each other and planners of inservice activities tend to have greater success in accomplishing their objectives than do programs which are conducted by colleges or other outside personnel without the assistance of teachers.

But it is an added responsibility for the school, notwithstanding.

The school-based teacher educator concept, as Houston points out, could produce some disabilities, the extent or significance of which needs exploration.

Firstly, schools would need to view the recurrent training of teachers as an essential undertaking to accord it an appropriate share of the budget. What priority is given to inservice education by school staffs and parents?

Secondly, schools may tend to select their school-based teacher educators from outstanding teachers in the system, a practice that encourages inbreeding. To what extent do teachers draw a charmed circle around themselves, concluding that only other teachers have the ability to illuminate their classroom practices?

Thirdly, school-based teacher educators may be inclined to press for easily implemented classroom ideas; inservice education programs may tend to over-stress practical applications. To what extent do teachers rank practice over theory, and trust experience over research?

Teachers Centres. Since teachers centres came into vogue in the United Kingdom and were encouraged in Australia by Schools Commission funding, there has grown up a coterie of teacher educators who work from that base. Teachers centres make possible access to a variety of specialists and resources and often serve as a clearing house for ideas; they are placed where teachers from many regions can share ideas and resources, where people from outside the parochial boundaries of a school can stimulate and motivate; where new "know how" in technology can be shared; and, because centres offer a wide range of courses, they provide teachers with a choice of program that may not be available elsewhere.

We wonder how critically and in how disciplined a way the education community has analysed the provision of recurrent education by this means, and what new education activities are now dependent on the existence of the teachers centres?

William Drummond²⁵ listed a number of separate activities which apply once teachers begin to specialize and take on educational assignments beyond the instruction of children.

Some of these roles could be labelled as follows:

- . instructor, diagnoser, prescriber
- . advisor, demonstrator
- . project team member, policy maker
- . performance feedback provider
- . resources retriever, referrer
- . writer, instructional designer
- . curriculum, program and materials developer
- . data collector, needs assessor, data analyzer
- . researcher, model builder, evaluator
- . counsellor
- . organisational and communications consultant
- . applied anthropologist or sociologist or psychologist.

It may be, indeed, that the teacher's duties have already been altered far more substantially than many people are prepared to admit. How unitary a thing is the teaching profession? Who are in it and who are not?

College-Based Teacher Educators. What of the changing nature of the college-based educator who now devotes a substantial part of his work to educating mature-age, trained teachers rather than late-adolescent neophytes to the teaching service? How appropriate in those circumstances are the following characteristics of tertiary education?

- . The work measurement unit used for college programs is typically the student credit-hour or full-time equivalent student. This practice assumes that formal instruction in a college classroom in a course format is the appropriate way for students to learn and for professors to teach.
- . The 'publish or perish' syndrome. Promotion and/or tenure in a college often depend upon criteria which give preference to those who write and publish rather than to those who display teaching quality and service to the professional community. These procedures work against what most students and systems want from tertiary college lecturers. In a time of competition for students, indeed, the colleges may have to change this stance in order to survive. Who has done a market survey on this trend?
- . Colleges value their independence and freedom from close supervision. To what extent do these two factors make for excellence in the colleges' programs or in student performance or professional competence?

In short, although a change in teacher education is occurring and college-based teacher educators now work more closely with schools, teacher centres and the community, the managers of colleges of education appear not to have created procedures or policies which provide those incentives for faculty members to carry out long-term service activities,

or to create new inservice instruction programs, materials and ideas. A development exercise is surely waiting for someone here.

If college-based teacher educators are to fulfil all or part of the functions described by Drummond and share these with teachers, as well as provide independent, external reference points for teachers in service, then clearly state and government departments must give attention to policy developments which will effect change without disadvantaging the college lecturer.

Massanari concludes that

...decisions about the creation of new roles and supporting preparation programs will be influenced in part by how decision makers view the changing conditions in society and education, but also in terms of other priorities. Political advantage and vested interests may outweigh commitment to improving the quality of education for children in the decision-making process.²⁶

The politics of funding and decision-making in this area is a fertile field for analysis.

Drummond and Houston²⁷ both conclude that school-based teacher education and college-based teacher education are inseparable, fulfilling functions that neither can deal with alone. The implications of such a conjunction for the professionalisation of teaching are important to all educators. There is even a possibility that the question of competence will be revisited, not packaged as neatly as in performance-based criteria but as a renewed effort to examine competence in contexts. The emphasis on competence for teacher educators will also prove valuable psychologically; a group that looks first at its own competence before looking at the competence of others has more credibility and public acceptance, we hypothesize; but the proposition needs testing.

Whatever decisions are or are not made about new professional roles in educating teachers, the final test of effectiveness is whether there is a direct bearing on students in the schools and the quality of education provided for them. Since this should be the dominant criterion in making decisions about teacher education and its preparation programs, we believe that a number of studies should test the correlation between the learnings of school students and the training of the teachers who deal with them. Unfortunately, it seems to us, most of the studies relating to the effectiveness of teacher education focus on teachers, rather than on the students they ultimately serve.

QUO VADIS?

We began to construct this paper well before the Auchmuty Report became available. At that point it was clear that there were unresolved and teasing questions which should be asked and answers attempted concerning the recurrent education of teachers. Many of the existing practices seemed to be the result of recent evolution which had occurred uncritically, even though commendably. Many were based on axioms which required analysis if not rejection. Many were shot through with assumptions about the teacher's role which appeared at least

obsolescent. And the whole field seemed unsystematic and confused. Cost benefit questions had been begged. The Auchmuty Report is refreshing, constructive, and disciplined in its approach to the question, now enunciating the dictum that teacher education is "continuous professional development",²⁸ the inservice part of it being integral with the pre-service part, and requiring the same degree of articulation and dogma. Furthermore in their diagram 3.1, the Committee has laid down a scheme which documents the areas the teacher must cover in his inservice study as well as his pre-service study,²⁹ clearly implying that the recurrent education of each teacher must be as systematic, coherent and structured as was his pre-service training.

Once action begins on implementing the propositions enunciated in the Auchmuty Report, researchers should immediately become busy, for here exists an ideal pre-test/post-test set of conditions to document and evaluate. In addition, the context -- social, fiscal and educational in particular -- has also changed, a situation which is replete with possibilities for multi-variate analysis. Yet while the situation has so much potential for constructive work, it also provides a new opportunity for the doctrinaire, the polemical, and for confusion, waste, and resource dissipation. If any areas of education need the attention of disciplined scholarship, surely this is one of them.

That change is inevitable and necessary is patently clear; how education is to cope with the forces of change is not. Alvin Toffler, in Future Shock writes, "Change is the process by which the future invades our lives".³⁰ The very near future could well demand of individuals, communities, systems, and societies, a quantum leap from the traditional to a still uncertain future.

Gail Sheehy,³¹ in Passages, describes human growth as a continuum with crises or points of turning all along the way. With each passage from one stage of growth to the next, we may need to shed a protective structure before we can accept new responsibilities, a changed self-image, or regain equilibrium.

Ann Jewett³² has applied Sheehy's developmental stages to the future of professional preparation. She describes Stage one as the "accountable seventies" which included competency - based teacher education. She describes this as a platform, so to speak, from which to leap. The seventies strengthened the education profession by giving it a firmer common base and clearer articulation. The "extending eighties", she predicts, will require professional maturity, an extension of role definitions, an exploration of new ways of making the process of education more successful and more rewarding to all learners. Specialisation will come with diversification of roles, Jewett claims, which will require definition. The teacher's role will be substantially changed from a transmitter of knowledge to a learning facilitator and an "anticipatory design science" specialist, as described by Buckminster Fuller.³³ The teacher will work alongside computerised information retrieval systems and use them as tools in his profession.

Stage two encompasses working among many paraprofessionals such as teacher aides, audio-visual technicians, computer programmers, and technical specialists. Furthermore, the teacher will work with an

increasingly wide range of professionals in other fields as school systems begin to integrate with other educational and social systems. In the eighties, Jewett claims, it will be "ridiculous for each of us to try to be all things to all people".³⁴

As tight job markets continue, teachers may need to make available job-seeking and job-keeping skills. Skills we used to assume could be developed through on-the-job training may actually become essential for getting the first job. Teachers will need to possess action research skills to increase performance effectiveness; communications skills in order to relate to the community or use the mass media; and field experience in community service will go hand in hand with teaching.

Later, Jewett asserts, educators will need to "step back for a broader professional perspective, to consolidate recent gains, to re-study the discipline, to re-analyse the purposes of education, to re-examine the meanings of our fields in the larger human world, to synthesize and revitalise what we are all about".³⁵

Jewett envisions a time when the professional educators will be ones who have developed diverse talents and widely varying skills; persons well qualified to live and work in a world of change and ambiguity; professionals committed to, and prepared for, service in a post-industrial, technologically advanced, pluralistic and globally interdependent society. In all probability, the educator will be part of a problem-preventing enterprise, a complex of socially useful services attuned to unlimited multicultural differences.

An education profession concerned with the interests of today's children and the well-being of the men and women they will become will also probably become, either willingly or unwillingly, more open to evaluation and reform. For the expectations of society are often raised beyond the capacity of the educator group to fulfil them. Furthermore, schools and teachers have no monopoly in the education of the young, and the school is closely interwoven with the fabric of society. We wonder, indeed, whether the Auchmuty schema is not too limited a picture based upon the teacher as we now know him rather than upon the multi-dimensional teacher or educator group that seems likely to evolve. We suggest, therefore, that the question of the recurrent education of educators could assume massive importance.

The education profession will have to regulate itself by a disciplined adherence to the goals of teaching; will have to equip students to understand the nature of the forces which operate upon their lives, and the finite boundaries of existence; will be required to help them understand the range of choices that lie open, and to teach them how to estimate and weigh the consequences of choice; and will have to put in their hands the means of acquiring the skills needed for successful pursuit of their chosen goals. Educators will require skills in the design of curricula, in the setting of priorities, in persuading the political decision-makers to accept the advice of the profession, in maintaining over time good teaching and learning conditions, and in research and development. Education may, indeed, by its very nature become less amenable to planning, less orderly, more diffuse, however much we might like it to be otherwise. For of all the professions or

emerging professions, education commits itself to individualism, to the uniqueness of the child and to the fostering of individual differences. Should anything less be accorded the teacher as well? Combs has put the point well:

A good teacher is primarily a unique personality. If good teachers are unique individuals we can predict from the start that the attempts to find common uniqueness would be unlikely to get results. A good teacher is first and foremost a person and this fact is the most important and determining thing about him. He has competence to be sure but not a common set of competencies like anyone else.³⁶

In many respects, then, the recurrent education of each teacher may be as unique as he himself is.

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PART 1

THE CHANGING CONTEXT

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INTRODUCTION

In Part 1 of this report on the ERDC seminar on "Recurrent Education and the Teaching Role", the general purpose is to explore the societal context in which Australian education and schooling are embedded. Although the particular focus is on those elements of society which appear to be significant for the teaching role, it is clear that there are implications for the nature and quality of individual and community life more generally.

Whether the schools are viewed ideally as part of the vanguard of social change or as a reflection of past or present social reality, it is inevitable that changes in the societal context have an impact on schooling and hence on the roles of those who work in the schools. Australian society is, of course, not operating under "steady state" conditions. Nor are teachers in the schools. In fact, Beare and Van Rayy suggest in the introductory chapter (p. 19) that the duties of today's teachers may already have altered far more substantially than many people care to admit.

Both Australian society and Australian education may be described as being in a transitional stage. The term, transitional, however, tends to suggest that at some future time relatively stable conditions are again likely to obtain. For example, it would be misleading to suggest that the stage through which the teaching role is presently passing will eventually lead to different but nevertheless, stable, role specification for teachers. What is re-emphasised here is that both society and schooling will continue to be subject to forces making for constantly changing conditions, which, in turn, require a flexibility of teacher response (whether proactive or reactive) that is almost the antithesis of stable role specifications. Indeed the whole press for recurrent education and inservice experiences for teachers is based not only on providing "second chance" opportunities and "update" programs to enable them to meet already apparent needs, but also on continuing their professional and personal development as a life-long process. Furthermore, as the Report of the National Inquiry into Teacher Education (1980, Chapter 2) observes, it is more than the development of disciplinary knowledge and teaching skills which is deemed important in inservice education - it is teacher sensitivity to and appraisal of the changing societal context in which schooling is actually taking place.

The papers which are included in this part reflect such considerations. The first, submitted by B.W. Smith, includes reference to many of the broad aspects of and issues surrounding social change, concentrating most specifically on the interaction of technology and society, the effects of technological advances on employment and the labour market (and associated skill levels and distribution of skills), and on implications of the interaction for education and schooling.

The second paper is based on research conducted by M. Gloster, P. Grayson and B. Hart in the non-formal sectors of education, such as community learning centres and consciousness raising groups. Looking at the broad spectrum of education in today's society, Gloster alludes to an unprecedented growth in the popularity of non-formal education. He sees this as problematic for the predominant formal systems of education as they are now structured. The paper raises significant questions regarding the degree to which the formal and non-formal sectors may be seen as complementary as opposed to competitive in nature and purposes.

The third paper included in this section is that of P. Cameron whose research focus is directly on students and teachers in the formal school system. Cameron's work suggests that too little recognition is given to the characteristics of the "new" student body enrolled in the schools, to the self-perceived needs of students in an increasingly technology-oriented society and to their self-concepts. The societal conditions which confront teachers also confront students, and teachers need not only to be sensitised to present and likely future societal changes, but also to master the knowledge, skills and attitudes required to help students face an uncertain future.

K.S. Keogh makes the final contribution to this part of the conference report. His analysis of the changing age, composition and structure of the teaching force provides a factual statistical base of trends in teacher supply and demand and the implications which these have for (a) changing the current conception of the teaching role, and (b) acknowledging the necessity for new practices to meet emergent staff development needs and future career structures.

The four papers which constitute this part thus move from a broad picture of Australian society as it attempts to cope with the successive impacts of change and modern technological advances, to one response (the non formal) which society is making to widely felt needs for more education; to an overview of students and teacher aspirations and/or needs, given the changing societal context; through finally to a study of the teaching force viewed through the eyes of an education economist.

The papers themselves follow, after which a short section is devoted to reflections on the papers and the discussion which they generated.

TECHNOLOGICAL AND SOCIAL CHANGES - IMPLICATIONS FOR THE
RECURRENT EDUCATION OF TEACHERS

Barry W. Smith

INTRODUCTION

Contributors to this seminar were asked to synthesise relevant research, particularly that based on Australian studies, in preparing their papers; and then to examine needs, resources and constraints prior to identifying needs for further research in the area.

In addressing this topic, technological and social changes and their implications for the recurrent education of teachers, there are two problems. The first is simply that the subject matter is so huge. Effectively it represents the intersection of two major fields, namely social and technological change on the one hand and educational policy on the other. A single paper cannot cover the topic in any detail. Just some aspects of it were covered by a major report produced six years ago.^{1,2}

More significantly, while I would not wish to belittle empirical research, it would not appear that a synthesis of empirical work is basically what is needed here, even if it were practicable to attempt this. The position is rather like that in the N.S.W. Technology Research Unit, which is often asked questions like: "How many jobs have been lost (or created) because of the introduction of computer (or word processing, or robotics) technology?" The research has not been done, and there are good conceptual and methodological reasons why such research usually cannot be done. Hence, in fields like this, empirical research, when attempted, has usually been of little value. The kind of empirical work that most often is of value comprises case studies to gain insight into the processes of technological, organisational or other changes and their effects, or is largely descriptive. The behavioural approaches more common in many schools of sociological research or in the 'measurement' tradition of evaluation studies tend to be sterile.

Further, if we are considering social change, whether in relation to education or other areas of policy concern, we must also address values questions, and disentangle them from empirical and explanatory work.³

It is therefore important to explain what kind of work this is. What is needed, in looking at social and technological change and its implications for recurrent education, is a piece of policy research, and it is hoped that the ERDC will see such research as relevant and proper. Policy research typically begins with conceptual analysis, moves to synthesis, and then to praxis.

This paper, then, is a first brief sketch of what such a piece of policy research would comprise. It outlines very broadly the main elements of social change and, more specifically, of technological change as one major ingredient of social change. How significant one regards technological change to be depends upon the answers to a few fundamental

questions upon which ultimately one must make a judgment, using what evidence and arguments are available. Depending upon these judgments, it is at least possible to suggest, with some plausibility, the possibility of a future rather different from the recent past. Some implications of social and technological changes can then be drawn for the labour market, for education (both school and TAFE), and specifically for recurrent education. Finally, something is said about the inertia of education systems and about desirable changes, before suggesting needs for further work.

SOCIAL CHANGE

Many kinds of social change are taking place in modern western societies^{2,4} but this paper will concentrate mainly on technological change and related issues. It is important, however, to realise that technological changes represent just one part of a whole set of social changes which influence people, and hence must affect schools and TAFE institutions, and their teachers.

What one includes as significant under 'social change' is a matter of judgment and necessarily reflects a world view.

The least controversial elements relate to demography and employment. We face declining population growth, aging of the population and probably a net reproduction rate around unity. And whatever medium to long term view of the economy is held, no-one expects either our high general unemployment rate or our very high youth unemployment rate to fall significantly for some years.

More significantly, we are probably experiencing a turbulent process of social change in western societies, of which technological change forms part, requiring us to think through the purposes, emphasis and directions of both school and post-school education.

Relevant factors include: the probably widening gulf between the so-called developed world and the Third World; shortages of non-renewable resources, and unequal access to them; pollution, and more generally, changes to delicate ecosystems; debate about nuclear energy and fear of thermo-nuclear war; the development of very large and highly centralised organisations; changes in work organisation; rural decline and urbanisation; changes in family patterns and varied attitudes to sexual morality; the emergence of the women's movement and much greater female participation in the workforce; multiculturalism and greater diversity generally.

In general, one can see a tension between two concurrent trends. On the one hand, we are increasingly and directly affected by the actions of others - through inflation, pollution, urban congestion, shortages of materials, and so on. On the other hand, in the western world, because of increasing prosperity we have greater discretionary time and discretionary income. We have more choice. We have more scope for autonomy. We can therefore increasingly question accepted values and how we wish to live. This is reinforced by greater literacy, increasing leisure and general access to the mass media.

Because of tension between the press for individual autonomy and the need for social connectivity, it seems likely that we will experience growing social tension and value conflict.

The view of the Auchmuty Report⁵, which like the view expressed here is of course essentially a judgment, seems a little too urbane. Whilst recognising value conflict, the existence of subcultures and multiculturalism in Australian society, the Report seems to expect that there will be a common core set of consensual values to provide unity and continuity, values of course largely mediated by schools. The Report presents a view of multiculturalism and pluralism which it describes as "a culturally pluralistic but socially cohesive society". "This diversity is a source of enrichment to the society, provided its rests on a deeper consensus about human and social rights and responsibilities." As a vision, or an ideal, of a pluralist society with unity in diversity, this is fine, but is it intended to be a reasonably accurate description of the society we now have in Australia? Is there, in fact, acceptance by all communities, however diverse, of some common values?

It seems likely that pluralism, both of values and of culture, will prove to be one of the major characteristics of social change, especially in Australia. It is not at all clear that, at a fundamental level, there are shared, consensual values or compatible world-views and belief systems. If Australian society does not have common basic values underpinning its major subcultures, then, instead of a richly diverse community, we may have a divided one, racked by deep conflict. Centrifugal forces may be more evident than centripetal ones. In this case, we will indeed need, as the Auchmuty Report says, tolerance for group differences. Real tolerance is the one consensual value without which pluralism is destructive rather than creative and enriching.

A further, and related, point of criticism may be made of the Auchmuty Report. Although one third of the members of the Committee were women, the Report insufficiently reflects in both its analysis and its recommendations awareness of the growing consciousness of women, especially in the teaching profession, of their past repression, their present unequal access to positions of responsibility, or of their potential power.

TECHNOLOGICAL CHANGE

Technological change is currently a major topic of discussion. It is particularly important to consider it as an element of social change, because some suggest that changes in technology may either step up the rate of social change or bring about qualitative differences in society.

Clearly, there is deep disquiet, anxiety, apprehension and even fear in the community about what technology may mean for the number and kinds of jobs we have, and indeed for the very kind of society in which we live. Much has been said recently about what this may mean for education, including several useful speeches and papers by Mrs C. Blakers.⁶

The contributions of major reports have been less helpful. Williams⁷ spoke about what he prefers to call technical change, and examined several possibilities for the future before arriving at a bland and

surprise-free, indeed comforting, view of it. Auchmuty⁵ had a limited, though useful, discussion, especially in paragraphs 2.25 and 2.26, but mainly deferred to the Myers Report which was being drafted at the time the NITE Report went to the printers. Myers⁸ devoted only a page or two of his main volume to education, on the grounds that Williams had spoken. My opinion of Myers' brief comments on education is already known.⁹

Thus we have a largely circular reference to the topic by three Vice-Chancellors. We need to start again.

Let us begin by considering technological change in the broad.

Technological change does not represent a single issue in the way that, say, discrimination on the grounds of sex or race, or unequal employment opportunity, may be seen to be identifiable and reasonably discrete issues. Rather, technological change is a focus, or a window, for looking at many different issues. These are all concerned with social change, and in each of them technology plays a part, but only a part.

Thus the debate about technological change forces us to look at the labour market, at employment and unemployment and skill levels, at industrial relations and the working environment, and of course at education and training, amongst many other things. Technology is an important factor or dimension in all of these complex topics of social and political concern, but is never the only dimension.

The reason why the current debate about technology is so important, and why the technology focus is a useful one for examining many social problems and complex issues of social policy, is clear if we understand what the debate is really about.¹⁰ Five fundamental questions are central to the current controversies about technology:

- (1) Is the rate of technological change itself increasing?
- (2) Are the new technologies (especially those based on computing, micro-electronics and communications) somehow qualitatively different from earlier technologies?
- (3) How can our current social, political, economic, industrial and educational institutions cope with these changes?
- (4) How are the costs and benefits of the new technologies distributed?
- (5) Who controls the technology? Who decides?

The first two questions, as will be pointed out shortly, are among several questions relating to social change and to likely, possible and desirable social futures, to which the answers are crucial if we are to consider future needs for recurrent education as well as other social policy issues. They require us to make an informed judgment. If the answers to the first two questions is, as I believe, 'Yes', then we must ask the third question, which is threatening and troubling even to pose.

The last two questions, in particular, about distribution of costs and benefits and about control, make it clear that the debate is not just a technical and economic one, but social, political and moral. It is about the social order and about the justice of that order, as well as about its efficacy. This is true not only for the implications of new technology for employment or for industrial relations, but also for education.

Much might be said about technological change, but two important general comments should be made:

- (i) All technology is not the same. Technology is not neutral and value-free. Nor is the argument about whether all technological change is good, or whether it is all bad, despite the extreme positions that some groups take and despite the crass over-simplifications in some places in the Myers Report.⁸ How and why new technology is introduced is crucial, whether we are talking about industrial relations or about occupational health. Technology is not a formless blob of putty, but is designed into the workplace. How this is done is often far more important than the hardware technology itself. What we need to do, quite generally, is to identify and encourage socially desirable uses of new technology, and conversely, discourage those uses which are harmful to jobs, the environment, health or the quality of life.
- (ii) Technological change is not inevitable and predetermined. We must resist deterministic talk about inexorable change, and not equate all change with progress. There is, and must be, choice. We can and must influence choices made in technological decision making, but those choices and decisions are not usually made by those whom Coombs¹² calls whole persons, but by the creatures and instruments of organisations.

In his context paper for an ERDC seminar a month ago, Professor Peter Karmell¹³ - in a shift from his position only two years ago - said:

The main consequence of technological change appears likely to be a sharpening of the struggle about the distribution of society's income. The general thesis of the recent Report on Technological Change in Australia is that technological change is inevitable and should be welcomed as a means of raising living standards and widening options. However, it will lead to some, relatively minor, disruption, and certain adjustments following the introduction of new technologies may have to be softened by Government action.

It is important to emphasise that the problems of technological change are not technological. Technological problems are not solved by technological change. The real problems of technological change are human, economic and social. The Myers Report did not face up fully to these problems. The human problems relate to what to do about displaced workers and

bankrupted businesses which cannot compete with the new technology. The main economic question is: do the benefits outweigh the costs? There certainly are costs, including the costs of protecting the weak. Thus, without adopting a Luddite approach, it is still sensible to ask whether the rates at which new technologies are introduced should be influenced by subsidisation or taxation.

However, the social questions seem to me to be the most profound and the most difficult. How much will society have to adjust to make living with the new technology acceptable? What measures are needed to ensure an equitable distribution of the greater production made possible by the new technology - among members of society - between work and leisure - between material goods and the quality of life? Is it possible within our given social structure to solve these distributional problems? These issues are vitally related to the distribution of income, as indeed is the allpervasive problem of inflation. They reflect deep conflicts in society.

THE IMPORTANT JUDGMENTS

This brings me to the crucial step in the argument of this paper which requires us to make a judgment. It is the key to why social change and, as part of this, technological change may dominate our thinking.

Toffler¹⁴ spoke of accelerative social change. Emery¹⁵ has written somewhat obscurely about what he calls turbulence which implies not just complexity and rapid change but a fundamental change in the nature of social environments. Others like Barry Jones (MHR)¹⁶ postulate that we are at a point of discontinuity in social and economic history, a quantum jump, a phase shift. It is therefore essential that we should ask whether we can safely assume that the future will be more or less like the past.

Perhaps to pose the question is to suggest private views of the likely answers. Ultimately, of course, we cannot know with certainty the accuracy of our expectations of the future until the future has become the past. Our answers necessarily reflect judgments. And given human nature, it is more likely that those who are conservative, who want the future to be like the past, will expect this to be the case, whilst those who are not conservative will give different answers. Indeed, there is some element of self-fulfilling prophecy in all this. A separate point is that much of the change is irreversible. The most dramatic technological example of this is the development of nuclear weapons, which will now always exist, fundamentally changing international politics and human consciousness.

Let us consider again the five questions posed earlier in relation to technological change. They are important. If we envisage certain answers to them, we can indeed predict turbulence, discontinuity, and - as Karmel suggests - deep divisions about distribution and equity. Some would say that we would face the breakdown of the capitalist system and of our mixed economies. Certainly tolerance would be tested by the value conflict that could be generated.

THE LABOUR MARKET

Structural change, and especially technological change, is having clear effects on the labour market - on the number, kinds and quality of jobs available.

There is considerable dispute about whether we are in a post-industrial, super-industrial, or post-service society and indeed about what these terms mean. It is clear, though, that many traditional jobs in the service sector, once thought of as an area of employment growth, are now particularly vulnerable to technological change. These include typing, less skilled office work, and jobs in retailing, banking and insurance - traditionally, fields of high female employment. Jobs in some areas are declining, while new occupations are appearing, so that the notion of a single career for life is less and less applicable. There are clear implications for both compulsory and post-compulsory education in relation to sex-role stereo-typing, the need for adaptability and vocational guidance and preparation.

Technological change and its implications for employment thus require us to look at several questions:

- (1) What is the likely net effect on the number of jobs? It is not appropriate here to examine all the arguments about whether the job-creating effects of new technology will exceed the job-displacing effects. A personal view is that the effects of technological change on employment are unlikely to be positive, at least over the next decade or so in Australia, unless much more appropriate strategies for adapting to change are developed.
- (2) What are the implications for occupational shifts and for the need for personal adaptability and mobility?
- (3) What specific changes are needed in our educational system, both because of its role in preparing people for the work force, and because of its broader functions?

These questions relate with particular force to vocational education and training, and hence to TAFE, but they have relevance to schooling also.

Labour market planning is a subject in its own right. Suffice it to say that while we need more anticipatory planning and better insight, old models of so-called manpower planning must be discredited. The emphasis must be on adaptability in people, in educational provisions and in educational institutions.

EDUCATIONAL IMPLICATIONS

The educational implications of what has been outlined should now become clear.

To the extent that both schools and TAFE have a role in preparing people for working life as part of life as a whole, we can no longer expect a stable or predictable labour market during the lifetime of an individual. At the same time there may be rapid social change. Thus

there seems to be a need for much more adaptability in education - in curriculum offerings, in access to education, and in educational structures. Indeed, education should aim to help students themselves to be more adaptable, if they are to function effectively as members of society and of the workforce amidst this climate of change. This in turn implies a whole-hearted commitment to the principle of recurrent education as a strategy for lifelong learning¹⁷, a principle much espoused in our reports and our rhetoric but little yet translated into reality. Recurrent education provides also the ideal means for providing experiential learning that is linked to intellectual learning. It offers, too, a sensible way of blurring the boundaries between work, education and leisure, as the debate about work and leisure, largely triggered by technological change, is worked through.

Technological change has other implications for education - obviously for vocational education and the needs for information about the present and likely future labour market.

Most of all, it is imperative that young people - indeed all people - in western countries gain an understanding of science, technology and society because the decisions being taken about science, technology and society are too important to be left just to technocrats, or to politicians, or to multinationals, or to unions. Without some knowledge and understanding of technology, today's and tomorrow's citizens will be left impotent to exercise their democratic rights and duties in relation to some of our major determining influences. That is a deeply worrying prospect.

All of this implies a changing and exciting role for professional teachers. If we add a commitment to school-based curriculum development and links with the community, the implications for teachers whether primary, secondary or TAFE, seem quite daunting.

Finally, what this means for recurrent education - by which is meant more than just in-service education and some continuing education - requires great imaginative effort.

INERTIA

The dilemma and stumbling-block for education is its own inertia. Educators tend to be conservative, and education systems to be ultra-stable. A fascinating paper written nearly a decade ago by Elboim-Dror¹⁸ identifies eleven possible reasons for ultra-stability in education systems. They tend to follow rather than anticipate social change. We need to seek more adaptive strategies, of which recurrent education is a major one.

In addition we must discover how to foster desirable innovation and how to build more flexible institutional structures. In turn this implies a much more demanding, and exciting, professional role for teachers and administrators in both compulsory and post-compulsory education.

NEEDS AND DIRECTIONS

Finally, what does this suggest for needs and directions for further work? Not, it is suggested, mainly empirical work. We need policy research and conceptual analysis to unravel all the tangled threads and to identify the policy options. We need to look more closely at the relationship between education and society in the light of the changes which society is undergoing. We need to examine, or re-examine, the values or normative dimension of this, and to promote vigorous and constructive debate about the aims of education, both compulsory schooling and post-compulsory education. However, it seems folly to expect consensual statements at the end of this process, as proposed by both the Williams⁷ and Auchmuty⁵ Reports. Williams, in recommendation R4.12, proposed a particularly inept three-stage iterative process of debate, consultation and goal clarification; of specific objective-setting and planning; and finally of accountability and measurement. Open and informed debate by all who "own" the schools is desirable, but a management by objectives approach and a formal framework of measurement and accountability are quite inappropriate to such a multi-faceted enterprise as education. Like the Williams recommendation for a national assessment and monitoring program, such exercises tend to concentrate attention solely on what can be measured and to ignore everything else, including much that many people would regard as what is most important in education.

The Auchmuty Committee, whilst recognising the inherent difficulties in preparing statements of aims, nevertheless urges that this should be attempted through a process culminating in "the development by the Australian Education Council of a national statement on aims for schooling" (Recommendation R2.12). In a society characterised by pluralism and value conflict, such consensual statements, if consensus is indeed reached, are likely to be at a high level of generality, 'motherhood' principles of possible symbolic value but of little operational use in clarifying or shaping policy.

Further, if processes like those suggested by the Williams Committee were used, pressures may be imposed towards consensus.

Even more than policy research, what is needed is development. It is needed if we are to ensure effective democratic participation by most people in decisions which will profoundly influence the kind of society in which they and their great-grandchildren will live.

Finally, we need research into the reasons for inertia, ultra-stability and conservatism in Australian education systems so that in the 80's we can do more about recurrent education and perhaps talk about it a little less. I have in mind research of the kind that Duke, Sommerlad and Berry^{19,20} have recently reported.

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NON FORMAL EDUCATION: IMPLICATIONS FOR THE RECURRENT
EDUCATION OF TEACHERS

Michael Gloster*

For the past fifteen months my colleague and I have been learning about a quiet revolution in the way adult Australians and their communities are responding to the types of learning challenges being presented to them by the changing social conditions of the 1970s and early 1980s. One can not but be struck by the extent to which traditional adult and community education providers such as universities, CAEs, TAFE colleges, state councils or boards of adult education, workers education associations and the plethora of service-based organizations such as YMCAs, CWAs and so on are being bypassed as people link up with or fashion their own community-based continuing education capabilities.

Neighbourhood learning centres, community learning exchanges, participatory research units, environmental research and action groups, consciousness raising groups and so on are but a few of the myriad 'non formal' or 'alternative' educational phenomena that emerged on a widespread scale in the 1970s across Australia.

We believe that, given the likely social futures in Australia in the 1980s, such community-based and genuinely continuing education oriented phenomena will form a major challenge to the power, prestige and relevance of longer established and more traditionally structured adult education providers. I shall return to this later.

The implications of this quiet revolution for the recurrent or continuing education of professional teachers appear to be more profound than is commonly realised. With few exceptions the community-based revolution is being resourced by those who have not had the supposed advantage of professional teacher education. Later in this note I will briefly outline the general thrust of some of the principal innovations that the community-based groups are experimentally developing, in order to point the way to the type of re-learning that professional teachers will need to undergo if they wish to make themselves relevant in the rapidly growing areas that the alternatives are currently servicing.

Re-learning is the key concept of recurrent or continuing education. Emery (1975) makes the distinction between continuing education and the traditional modes of adult and refresher education, a distinction that captures nicely the nature of learning that professional teachers will be in great need of: "Continuing (or recurrent) education provides for new learning which does not just build on currently owned knowledge

* Barrie Brennan and I have been working together on an ERDC funded project on 'non formal and alternative adult education', and have been assisted by Peter Grayson and Ben Hart, both of AAAE. Additionally I have received considerable support from Fred and Merrelyn Emery, whose work has provided a conceptual scaffolding for much of Brennan's and my work.

but requires that the latter be relegated to the periphery or rigorously ousted from practice ... Continuing education will emerge in those areas where society is changing at a rate that renders old fundamental truths irrelevant." (p.18)

Adults and their communities, faced with increasingly turbulent social environments from the late 1960s onwards, are facing learning challenges of a scale and complexity hitherto unexperienced. Not only are problems becoming increasingly interconnected to the extent that they are forming intractable systems of problems, or 'messes', but at the same time societal values are differentiating and re-clustering just as rapidly, thus requiring individuals and their communities to simultaneously, rationally and affectationally relearn, if messes are to be cleared up. As Brennan and I have suggested in our progress report to ERDC, it is this class of learning challenge, emerging widely in Australia in the late 1960s and 1970s, that forms the novel education function that gave rise to the widespread emergence of community-based continuing education phenomena across Australia during the same period.

Individuals and their communities had to fashion such phenomena. Faced with major and novel learning challenges, with the need for genuine continuing education, they discovered that with few exceptions their tax-supported adult education providers were still exclusively in the business of adding to existing knowledge by refresher courses, professional updating and so on (cognitive differentiation), rather than additionally facilitating the type of rational and affectional un-learning, re-learning or paradigmatic transformation (cognitive restructuring) so desperately needed. In short, with few exceptions traditional providers, with their professionally educated staff, have not made their presence felt in one of the leading edges of Australian educational change.

Why has it been easier for people coming from outside the teaching profession to shape adaptive and community-based continuing education facilities, while their more highly educated, salaried and far better resourced professional counterparts have been left behind?

In our mid year progress report, Brennan and I laid the blame at the door of hierarchical or bureaucratic social structures (both administrative and asymmetrical teacher-student relationships) and with hierarchically structured, divisible and timeless maps of knowledge (and hence curricula). And at one level I think we were and are correct.

We were puzzled, however, by the responses to our tentative findings, and went on to note:

"As the (AAAE) team started to outline its working propositions to a fairly wide range of Australian professional adult educators, propositions about the functional role, learning processes and organizational structures of the community-based education groups under consideration, it became evident that these working propositions were capable of provoking quite hostile reactions ... The work of Angyal (1965) and Kuhn (1962) alerted us to the fact that differing paradigms may have a high proportion of common elements, yet such elements can have quite differing positional values within each paradigm...

The research team suspects that this is the case with the concepts of non-formal pedagogy and alternative social structure, within the world of adult education." (p. 7).

Since then the reasons for the hostility have become clearer. Few professional adult educators disagreed with our explanation of the novel education function of the community-based continuing education phenomena, and few disagreed that the hierarchical knowledge and social structures that they worked with and within made it difficult for them to match the services of the alternatives. What was getting them angry was our working proposition that they could not match these services unless they and their organizations underwent a fundamental rethink and restructuring. They felt that with judicious incremental reform, they could match the service of the alternatives.

Since then I have been pondering the following question: if traditionally-based adult education providers can incrementally reform, as their supporters claim, why haven't we seen at least one institutional example of this happening in Australia, given the huge demand for genuine continuing education?

I was stuck until Fred Emery took on the task of articulating the fundamental organizing principles of the paradigm of learning that underpinned our mass education system (including adult education provision) and the organizing principles of the paradigm underlying the type of continuing education that some of the community-based groups emerging across Australia are experimentally developing.

Emery's pathbreaking work, which will be published shortly, has helped me answer the question that had me stuck. In a nutshell, the logical educational design outcomes of the underlying epistemology of the traditional educational paradigm make it impossible to learn about richly interconnected, turbulent social environments at the rate required. The 'alternatives' have had to ad hoc new ways of enabling learning about such environments at the required rate. A remaining task is to articulate the epistemology underlying these approaches. This is the work that Emery is currently tackling. In the meantime I will give a crude outline of the argument in order that we can move towards identifying the implications for the continuing education of teachers.

Turbulent social environments, consisting of people, events, information, values and beliefs are constantly re-arranging themselves into new formations. Such turbulent environments are fluid. They have no a priori, timeless structure that can be isolated, identified, codified and transmitted. Social systems within turbulent social environments have to be able to search into them to learn about their causal formations.

However, the epistemological underpinnings of our mass education approaches, including those of our traditional adult education providers, are premised on the assumption that people are unable to spot causal formations in the world around them. The edifice of mass education is based on a world view first advanced by Newton and Euclid, and subsequently epistemologically expressed by Berkeley, Hume and Locke. It was held that human beings could not perceive causal structures. The best that could be achieved was to connect clues together, by noting that

A and B usually occurred together. The job of the pedagogue was to stand behind the learner, stick in hand, to reinforce appropriate connections.

From Berkeley, Hume and Locke it was a logical step to Herbart's theory of education and Thorndike's connectionism and associated stimulus - response. The logic of this unbroken tradition is still underpinning mass education today, despite the incremental reforms, the give and take of fashion, of staff-student relationships, curricula, balance of praise and punishment, and so on. When the fashionable niceties are peeled away, along with the current educational good manners, the underlying logic of Hume, Locke and Berkeley reveals itself: people are unable to spot causal formations; education must compensate for this by overseeing the transmission of the hierarchical knowledge structures pieced together by yesterday's clever people to today's students, through an education process built around (i) isolation of elements of knowledge, (ii) repetition, and (iii) reinforcement. Balance of praise and punishment, staff-student relationships, open class rooms and the like are questions of efficiency within this regime.

But today's turbulent social environments demand that we be able to spot their causal formations at the rate of their (re) formation if we are to be able to learn about, adapt to and reshape them. It is small wonder that those who have not invested a decade or more of their life going up the blind alley from Newton to Herbart while being educated and apprenticed as professional teachers have cast about for and created their own continuing education facilities: facilities that enable individuals and their communities to spot causal formations in their turbulent social environments, that enable "little people" to tackle the complex rational and affectional re-learning required to clear up systems of problems or messes in their daily lives.

Over the last century the paradigm of mass education, underpinned by the tradition from Newton through Herbart to Thorndike, has been under constant attack by those seeking incremental reforms. But it has stood solid, shortcomings being explained away by calls for more teacher refresher education, better staff student ratios, project based learning, more funding, more buildings and so on. Just as Kuhn's (1962) thesis would predict.

But now the paradigm is under real threat, and with it many professional teachers, because an increasing number of adult Australians are voting with their feet. They are bypassing the long established adult education providers, with their hierarchical curricula and social structures, and their core assumption that people are unable to spot causal formations. Instead these people are flocking to community-based alternatives that enable one to learn the most adaptive skill for the 1980s: the ability to spot causal formations in one's turbulent social world, to once again be able to make sense of a rapidly changing world and one's part within it, in order to be able to adapt to and reshape that world.

And it is under threat because people like Fred Emery, building on the work of Heider, Gibson, Miller, Polanyi and de Bono, are piecing together the epistemological underpinnings of this emergent community-based continuing education phenomenon.

Emery's current thinking is that while Euclidian geometry was a springboard for the traditional educational paradigm, Riemannian geometry is the equivalent springboard for the alternative emerging. We can spot object invariance, and hence causal formations, because parallel lines do meet. But I would prefer to wait for Emery's account of this epistemological thrust. However, the implications for the recurrent education of teachers is clear.

We do have the ability to extract direct information and knowledge of our turbulent social environments by spotting causal formations, thereby providing us with the basis for down-grading that turbulence. Mass education has undoubtedly damaged this ability of natural discovery. There is an urgent challenge to enable people to regain the confidence to enhance this ability they were born with.

The meeting of this challenge by means of community-based continuing education is the phenomenon now under investigation. Little wonder that it is growing so rapidly that the traditional providers are having to start to take notice. The pity is that, by and large, the signs are being misread. Consider the following conventional wisdoms among Australian professional adult educators:

- (a) The 'alternatives' are in the business of providing a valuable service to the 'casualties' of traditional education providers.
- (b) The 'alternatives' are popular because they are more people orientated than large educational institutions.
- (c) The 'alternatives' are valuable half way houses or bridges back to mainstream educational institutions.
- (d) The emergence of 'alternatives' indicates operational shortcomings of traditional providers.
- (e) The 'alternatives' provide mainstream providers with valuable guides to reform.

There is, in the conventional wisdom, nothing the matter with the traditional provision systems that a little reform could not take care of. In this view, the alternatives, having provided a useful spur to reform, will fade away in the face of revitalised, more professional and better funded mainstream systems.

It appears that the Australian adult education profession is marching on the spot in paradigm-blindered unison while the ground moves ever more rapidly under it. Their primary and secondary level colleagues are little better. Surely as a profession, teachers themselves urgently need a short sharp dose of genuine continuing education of the type "that does not just build on currently owned knowledge but requires that the latter be relegated to the periphery or rigorously ousted from practice".

IMPLICATIONS FOR THE CONTINUING EDUCATION OF TEACHERS

Some educational researchers have managed to get themselves rather confused over what the core characteristics of continuing education are. (For example, see Duke, Sommerlad and Berry, 1980.)

Emery's (1975) three page clarification of the functions and inter-dependencies of adult education, further education and continuing education - extracted out of actual practice of adult education learning rather than abstracted from previous generations of academic abstraction on what continuing education could be and/or should be² - is more than adequate for the purposes at hand.

Transposing this generic clarification to the field of teacher education throws light on teacher further and continuing education as follows:

Further Education of teachers: updating of a teacher's required core of knowledge - i.e., the knowledge thought necessary by that teacher for him or her to be professionally competent. Underlying this concept is an assumption that broader changes in the teaching profession have seen the emergence of new bits of knowledge or skills that need to be, and can be, added on to the existing core of knowledge. In other words, some refresher courses are needed to ensure that the teacher stays abreast with the latest evolutionary developments in the professional field.

Often new components of professional competence emerge in this way, and in such cases a strategy of Further Education is adaptative. (For an example in the field of technology, see B. Smith's paper in this volume.)

Continuing Education of teachers: provides for new learning which does not just extend from the teacher's existing core of knowledge (as does Further Education), but which requires that this core itself be rigorously re-examined and rebuilt in the light of changing circumstances.

Specifically, continuing education becomes necessary when changing circumstances render old fundamental or core knowledge irrelevant or maladaptive.

So in a situation where the context within which education is practised has not significantly changed, then further education of teachers is an adaptive strategy. On the other hand, if circumstances are changing rather dramatically, then a strategy integrating both further and continuing education is called for, if an active adaptive response is to be fashioned.

The purpose of the first part of this paper was to illustrate some of the characteristics of a quiet revolution taking place in the world of adult education in Australia. At its core, it is a paradigmatic revolution, and if professional teachers wish to become part of this revolution, wish to help fashion active adaptive responses in the face of turbulent social fields, then they will need to tackle head-on their own continuing education.

Some may argue that it is not the job of the professional teacher to fashion educational settings suitable for learning about and adapting to a turbulent social world. If this is their choice, then in the not too distant future an angry Australian public may increasingly withdraw its tax-funded financial support from this type of paradigm and instead increasingly join the ranks of those currently mounting the quiet revolution - the do-it-yourselfers.

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CHANGING PATTERNS OF STUDENT PARTICIPATION, STUDENT EXPECTATIONS
AND EMPLOYMENT OPPORTUNITIES FOR STUDENTS - AN OVERVIEW OF
SOME IMPLICATIONS FOR THE RECURRENT EDUCATION OF TEACHERS.

Peter Cameron

The overall implications of the changing patterns of student participation, student expectations and employment opportunities for the formal recurrent education needs of teachers should be viewed in the context of:

- (a) an understanding of the dimensions of the changes;
- (b) the organization of appropriate types of inservice;
- (c) the administrative arrangements that will be best suited to the needs; and
- (d) the priorities.

Each of these will be studied in turn. However, before doing so, it is important to note that the changing patterns of student participation, student expectations and employment opportunities for school leavers have not suddenly created a need for dramatic changes in the educational services provided by schools. However, these three factors are now bringing to a head those pressures that have been building up over the last decade or so for schools to modify their programs and become more adaptive to the needs of the pupils.

Many schools remain basically oriented to academically able students and at the upper secondary level are still concerned primarily with preparation for tertiary entrance. Yet there are now large numbers of students who are not oriented towards an academic career but who stay on at school because they have nowhere else to go or because they believe that by doing so they will enhance their job prospects.

Better and more inservice education programs for teachers are not the sole means of solving the problem. For the necessary changes to occur there will also have to be modifications made to the organizational structure of schooling. However, a major task that can only be accomplished through inservice education programs is the sensitizing of teachers to the need for change and providing them with opportunity to gain the skills and knowledge that they will need to implement new education strategies.

THE DIMENSIONS OF THE CHANGES

In combination with changing age participation patterns and retention rates, declining enrolments seem certain to produce important changes in the nature of and the projected conditions for teachers.

Primary school enrolments are expected to decline at an average annual rate, of about 1.5 per cent over the next decade. Secondary enrolments reached a peak in 1977 and will decline until 1981. They are expected to peak again in 1985 and by 1988 to have fallen to 1977 levels (See Appendix, Table 1).

However, there will be differences between States and Territories in future rates of growth in the population and this will be reflected in school enrolments, but only in Western Australia and the Northern Territory does it seem likely that the number of students will be higher in 1988 than it was in 1978. Also, within States and Territories, uneven patterns of population growth will occur and thus, within the general pattern of declining enrolments, there will be marked variations which will make educational planning difficult. A further complicating factor is the uncertainty about the impact of the shift in the proportion of students enrolled in non-government schools. However, there is still insufficient data available to judge fully the impact of this shift on projected enrolment patterns.

As shown in Table 2 of the Appendix, the steady increase in the retention of students in Year 12 peaked in 1977 at 35.3 per cent of the age cohort, but declined slightly to 34.7 per cent in 1979. Analysis of these figures shows that retention of girls has continued to increase (36.6 per cent to 37.2 per cent), while that of boys has decreased from 34.0 per cent to 32.4 per cent. On the other hand, the percentage of students who left school at Year 9 or earlier contracted from 18.4 per cent to 10.7 per cent between 1973 and 1978. There has thus been a tendency for school leavers to cluster around Years 10 and 11 (See Appendix, Table 3).

Compulsory schooling ends at the age of 15 in all States except Tasmania where it is 16. Overall, a high proportion of students stay on at school beyond the leaving age to complete their Year 10 studies. This proportion rose steadily in the period 1972 to 1978 increasing from 82.1 per cent of the age group to 87.2 per cent, but fell in 1979 to reach a level of 86.9 per cent. The proportion of 15-19 year olds who stayed at school also reached a peak in 1978 at 37.7 per cent after a steady increase.

The plateau in the pattern of retention rates that occurred in 1977 and continued through until 1979 would seem to be a temporary halt in the rising trends. With rising unemployment rates, young people are faced with fewer opportunities to work and, if it remains true that more years of schooling increase a person's chances of getting a job, as Williams et al.¹ have stated, then we can expect that retention rates will continue to rise in Years 11 and 12.

We now have the situation where it is expected that 9 out of 10 students will remain in school from the first secondary year to Year 10 and it seems an inescapable prospect that a general policy goal of retention into Year 12 of all students will become widely accepted in school systems over the next decade.

In summary, it can be seen that, within a pattern of an overall decline in enrolments, more students are likely to stay on in Years 11 and 12, and schools must therefore be prepared to cater for the needs of much more varied groups of students who have changing attitudes to what schools should be able to do for them.

In recent years in Australia, economic conditions have been characterised by low economic growth with accompanying high levels of unemployment, particularly among school leavers. Table 4 (see Appendix) shows that,

since 1977, the unemployment rate has fluctuated between 16.3 and 21.6 per cent of the full-time labour force in the 15-19 year age group, compared with a fluctuation between 3.6 and 5.0 per cent in the unemployment rate for those aged 20 and over.

In part, this higher rate of unemployment among 15-19 year olds reflects substantial changes in the pattern of employment within industry and between industry groupings. Of particular significance for the group of school leavers who traditionally left school at or before the end of Year 10 has been the decline in opportunities in the manufacturing industries which in part reflects the decrease in job opportunities caused by an increasingly technologically-oriented economy. The Crawford Report², the Williams Report³ and the Myer Report⁴ all predict an ominous future for young school leavers as a result of the increasing rate of technological sophistication.

The changing employment patterns also have significance for the conditions of teachers. The lack of growth in the teaching services and the reduced turnover of those teachers leaving to take up jobs elsewhere will result in increasing numbers of teachers remaining in the same job for a longer period. The desire for job security will keep in the teaching force many who would be better suited to other roles. Thus, we are faced with a situation of a non-expanding and aging teaching force, including retention of some who are unsuitable for the more demanding tasks that will result from increased retention rates. This trend is already apparent in some school systems. For example, in New South Wales government schools, the resignation rate in 1977 (excluding teachers who have retired because of age or ill health) was 7.7 per cent, whereas in 1979 it was only 1.4 per cent.

Since we lack systematic evidence covering a long period, it is hard to judge to what extent changes in student attitudes towards education have taken place. However, there have been a number of recent studies of young people's school experiences which indicate that there is a growing dissonance between what youngsters expected and what they actually got from their education. A third of the sample which Behrens⁵ interviewed in his study, Schooling and Work, indicated their dissatisfaction with their experience of school. The areas of dissatisfaction were expressed in terms of resentment of the authority structure and their teachers' lack of appreciation of their individual worth. In the Wright and Headlam study⁶, in which the major theme is the irrelevance of much school experience, the main criticisms expressed were in terms of a feeling of impotence and an isolation from the real world. Connell⁷ deduced from his study that the majority of the inner city teenagers he surveyed seemed simply to tolerate school, and he found that the attitude was much the same over different kinds of schools and social classes. The aspects with which there was least satisfaction were generally related to lack of independence, and lack of choice and power in non-academic matters.

Wassell⁸ has also commented on the number of teenagers who have felt that they could have done better at school and who had been underestimated by their teachers. He found that many wanted much more support in their transition to adulthood and felt that they had been grossly undervalued when they were at school.

In a study prepared for the Schools Commission's report, Schooling for 15 and 16 Year Olds, it was found that students are uneasy about their futures and are concerned with the quality of education they are receiving as preparation. They want more applied schooling. They are worried about their future and hope that persons of greater knowledge and experience will assist them to obtain the knowledge they require. They want to obtain the knowledge and skills which will enable them to have some control over their futures.

Commenting on international studies in this field, Husen⁹ has noted that:

the common basic school was once established to transmit certain skills and knowledge. But in our present society it (the school) is inherently ill suited to fulfill other functions in preparing for adult life.

He goes on to claim that there has been an overall observable change in student attitudes - which is most pronounced in the better educated and more articulate youngsters and expressed in a quest for a better quality of life with an increased emphasis on humanistic pursuits and a growing opposition to positivism, pragmatism and technology. However, at the same time he points to evidence of increasing individualistic and withdrawn attitudes and an increasing alienation from society which expresses itself in anti-social behaviour.

The pressure on schools to adapt to the wider variety of academic, vocational and personal development needs can only intensify as retention rates continue to rise, and since the quality of the interaction between teachers and students in schools is largely dictated by the personal qualities of the teachers, it is fundamental that more attention should be paid to the development of the teachers themselves.

ORGANIZATION OF APPROPRIATE TYPES OF INSERVICE EDUCATION

Inservice education activities currently are wide in their scope and varied in their purpose. They range along a continuum that is marked at one extreme by a focus on formal training activities for individual teachers. For example, training courses are provided to give teachers the skills and knowledge they require to teach migrants or handicapped children, or to become specialists in the area of career education, or to become teacher-librarians. Some of these courses are conducted by tertiary institutions, others by employing authorities.

At the other extreme, the focus is on the school itself where inservice education takes the form of activities which are integrated with substantive school problems. Between these two extremes is a wide range of activities which include workshops, seminars, conferences and inter-school visits designed to meet the needs of groups of teachers from different schools and school systems who share similar problems. These play an important part in helping to break down the professional isolation of teachers.

In recent years, there has been an increasing emphasis given to school focussed activities, a shift which accords with the recent research

findings here and overseas showing that school improvement is most likely to occur when inservice education programs are complementary to projects being undertaken in the school. The pressures arising from increased retention and changing patterns of age participation will force schools to initiate critical self-appraisals of their own objectives and their own performance. In this context staff development can become part of a program improvement process and professional learning can be directly related to ongoing school activities. It therefore seems important that greater emphasis should be given to this type of inservice in the future. Moreover, viewing staff development in the context of program-building efforts in schools helps to shift staff development from one where teachers are seen to be needing inservice because they lack professional skills, to one where inservice education is seen to be an integral part of an ongoing problem solving process within the school.

At the same time, however, it seems likely that there will be an increased need to provide more opportunities for inservice activities which focus on the needs of individual teachers. As indicated earlier in this paper, in the past school systems have relied heavily on the infusion of new talent, in the form of new recruits, to upgrade performance and to stimulate the introduction of new ideas and practices. However, this option is losing its viability as enrolments and teacher resignation rates decline and fewer new recruits are employed. In 1977 there were 25,500 new recruits employed and they constituted approximately 15 per cent of the teaching force. By 1979, the number of new recruits had dropped to 16,800 and they then constituted only 9.8 per cent of the teaching force.¹⁰ Since this pattern is likely to continue at least over the next decade, employing authorities increasingly will need to turn to teachers who are already employed to fill the specialised roles that will be required as new policy initiatives are implemented. This will mean that more opportunities must be provided for re-training programs that focus on individual teachers.

Although there are negative features associated with the diminution of new recruitment there are also positive aspects. Rapid turnover in the past has caused instability. Greater staff permanence will make possible more effective school-level planning and implementation and teachers and students will be able to develop long-term relationships. The greatest benefit will be to those rural schools whose staff have been young teachers on short-term appointments.

In summary, therefore, it seems that over the next decade we will witness a greater need for two types of inservice education. On the one hand, there will be an increased need for more school focussed activities, and, on the other, a need to provide opportunities for programs which focus on the individual training needs. At the same time, the need for opportunities for teachers to participate in a wide range of other activities will continue, particularly in view of the fact that, with increased stability in staffing patterns, the level of professional isolation of teachers is likely to increase.

ADMINISTRATIVE ARRANGEMENTS THAT WILL BE BEST SUITED TO THE NEEDS

As implied earlier in this paper, uneven patterns of population growth and local variations in employment opportunities will generate diverse inservice education needs in different geographic regions. Thus, if inservice programs are to be relevant and effective they must be planned and organised at the local level. In practice this means that those who participate in programs should be involved in making decisions about how resources will be used and what programs will be funded. The existing arrangements, whereby grants for inservice education provided through the Schools Commission's Services and Development Program are administered by representative committees at the state and regional level, provide a model that has proved to be responsive to local needs. In this regard, it is disappointing to note that the National Inquiry into Teacher Education has recommended that additional funds for non-award courses should be provided directly to Universities and Colleges. There is no doubt that, if the Colleges of Advanced Education could be released from the legislative regulations which now allow them to spend only 0.5 per cent of their recurrent grant on non-award courses, and they had access to more funds, they could add a valuable resource for inservice education. However, by providing direct grants to these institutions and in effect giving them the power to determine the kinds of inservice programs that will be provided, the situation could arise where the self-interests of the institutions could take precedence over the real inservice needs. An alternative arrangement might be to allocate additional funds to the existing representative state and regional Committees who could then contract with tertiary institutions to conduct courses and other inservice activities in accordance with identified needs.

PRIORITIES

If schools are to adapt successfully to cope with the increased pressure of retention and at the same time take account of changing student attitudes to education and their employment prospects, then teachers must also adapt. In particular they will need to acquire new skills, knowledge and attitudes through formal and informal recurrent education that will enable them to adopt modes of teaching which place less emphasis on specific content-mastery and more on the central organizing of ideas and their transfer to new situations.

They will also need to pay more attention to the development of student confidence, personal identity, competence and social commitment.

Of particular importance is the need to give teachers the opportunities to develop the capacity to promote strategies that will assist students to gain the confidence and self-esteem they will require to face an uncertain future in a rapidly changing society. Schools cannot guarantee that all young people will leave school equally well equipped with the knowledge and skills that are most marketable under contemporary economic and social conditions. But they can do a great deal more than is now being done to broaden the range of students for whom the environment of the school is satisfying and rewarding, and they can do more to enhance the potential of all students whatever their talents or background.

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TABLE 1.

Actual and Projected Number of Students 1972 - 1990 (a)
('000)

YEAR	PRIMARY STUDENTS ^(b)	SECONDARY STUDENTS	TOTAL
1972	1813.5	1020.4	2834.0
1973	1804.0	1042.4	2846.4
1974	1808.1	1062.9	2879.9
1975	1810.3	1099.9	2910.3
1976	1828.9	1118.1	2947.1
1977	1858.7	1120.2	2978.8
1978	1877.3	1115.4	2992.6
1979p	1884.3	1103.5	2987.8
1980	1885.3	1095.9	2981.2
1981	1866.1	1103.6	2969.7
1982	1838.0	1118.7	2956.7
1983	1796.6	1147.4	2944.0
1984	1751.3	1176.0	2927.3
1985	1718.5	1186.1	2904.6
1986	1701.3	1180.6	2881.9
1987	1698.0	1162.9	2860.9
1988	1714.3	1135.3	2849.6
1989	1745.6	1104.8	2850.4
1990	1783.7	1080.9	2864.7

(a) Figures for 1972 are actual; figures for 1979 are preliminary, and figures for 1980 - 1990 are projections.

(b) Includes children in special schools and special classes.

Source: Schools Commission, Statistical Bulletin, June, 1980.

TABLE 2

Student Retention Rates (a) 1969 to 1979

	1969	1972	1975	1977	1978	1979
Year 10 - Persons	77.5	82.7	84.9	87.7	88.8	89.4
Males	78.7	83.8	84.8	87.1	88.3	88.5
Females	76.2	81.6	85.1	88.3	89.5	90.4
Government	75.2	80.6	82.8	86.1	87.1	87.3
Non Government	85.2	90.4	92.3	93.6	95.2	96.6
Catholic	77.6	84.4	87.9	89.5	91.5	92.9
Other	107.3	107.4	104.7	105.1	105.1	107.9
Year 11 - Persons	42.5	48.2	50.5	52.3	53.4	53.0
Males	46.0	50.7	50.7	50.3	51.1	50.4
Females	38.7	45.5	50.3	54.4	55.8	55.8
Government	38.3	44.2	46.2	48.0	48.8	48.0
Non Government	55.9	61.9	65.7	67.5	69.6	70.6
Catholic	42.0	48.6	53.5	56.4	58.4	59.4
Other	96.5	99.6	99.9	97.8	100.9	102.0
Year 12 - Persons	27.5	32.4	34.1	35.3	35.1	34.7
Males	31.1	35.7	34.6	34.0	33.1	32.4
Females	23.7	28.9	33.6	36.6	37.3	37.2
Government	23.0	27.6	28.6	29.7	29.6	28.9
Non Government	42.1	48.5	53.4	54.9	54.5	55.4
Catholic	29.7	35.2	40.9	43.2	43.1	44.1
Other	78.5	86.5	88.2	87.6	85.5	87.1

(a) See footnote (a) of Table 3

Source: Australian Bureau of Statistics, September, 1980.
 Asats ref: Table 3.30

TABLE 3

Student Retention Rates (a) 1979 - All Students

	Percentage In:			YEAR 11			YEAR 12		
	YEAR 10								
	MALES	FEMALES	TOTAL	MALES	FEMALES	TOTAL	MALES	FEMALES	TOTAL
NSW	85.2	87.1	86.1	37.1	41.0	39.0	33.3	36.3	34.7
VIC (b)	88.7	90.4	89.5	63.0	70.9	66.9	28.3	35.8	32.0
QLD	93.1	94.0	93.5	47.2	48.4	47.8	35.6	39.9	37.7
S.A.	88.8	93.5	91.1	71.9	76.3	74.0	34.6	39.3	36.9
W.A.	93.4	94.0	93.7	49.1	60.7	54.8	32.2	36.0	34.0
TAS (c)	86.1	87.7	86.9	26.6	37.6	32.0	22.3	29.1	25.7
N.T.	72.0	84.0	77.8	56.2	58.2	57.2	19.4	25.3	22.2
ACT	94.7	94.9	94.8	74.3	75.8	75.0	67.1	72.4	69.6
AUST	88.5	90.4	89.4	50.4	55.8	53.0	32.4	37.2	34.7

- (a) These rates are measures of the tendencies of members of students cohorts to remain in school from the first secondary year to the third last (Year 10), second last (Year 11) and final year (Year 12) of secondary schooling.

The method of calculation of these rates is best shown by an example:

- to calculate the apparent retention rate of students in Year 12 in 1979 in NSW, the number of those students in 1979 was expressed as a proportion of the number of students in the first secondary year in NSW in 1974 (1974 being the year in which the 1979 final year cohort would have enrolled in first year.)

The retention rate thus derived is called an apparent retention rate because the method of calculation does not explicitly take account of net changes to the school population due to migration, nor of those students who spend more than one year in the same grade.

- (b) In Victoria students may undertake a tertiary orientation year program in the Technical and Further Education sector after Year 11.
- (c) The higher school certificate may be taken at the end of either Year 11 or Year 12.

Source: Schools Commission, September, 1980.

Asats ref: Table 3.29

TABLE 4

Unemployment among 15 to 19 Year Olds

YEAR	MONTH	Number looking for full-time work			Un-employment Rate (a)			Unemployment rate for those aged 20 and over (b)
		MALES '000	FEMALES '000	TOTAL '000	MALES %	FEMALES %	TOTAL %	
1977	February	57.1	61.1	118.2	16.1	21.0	18.3	3.6
	May	50.9	51.4	102.3	14.8	18.3	16.3	3.6
	August	51.0	58.2	109.2	15.3	20.9	17.8	3.7
	November	48.1	51.9	100.0	15.7	19.2	17.4	3.8
1978	February	74.6	72.4	147.0	20.0	23.5	21.6	5.2
	May	50.5	53.9	104.4	14.8	18.7	16.5	4.7
	August	57.5	49.5	107.0	17.3	17.9	17.5	4.8
	November	47.8	50.1	97.9	14.7	18.8	16.5	4.4
1979	February	69.9	69.9	139.9	18.7	23.5	20.8	5.0
	May	53.5	61.2	114.7	15.2	22.1	18.3	4.6
	August	42.7	60.2	112.9	15.6	22.7	18.7	4.2
	November	48.8	53.0	101.7	14.8	19.8	17.0	4.0
1980	February	65.1	71.0	136.1	17.3	23.2	20.0	4.9
	May	54.3	63.3	117.6	14.9	21.8	18.0	4.7
	August	52.2	59.0	111.2	15.3	21.2	18.0	4.7

(a) The number of unemployed in the 15 to 19 year age group looking for full-time work as a percentage of the full-time labour force in the 15 to 19 year age group.

(b) The number of unemployed in the 20 years and over age group looking for full-time work as a percentage of the full-time labour force in the 20 years and over age group.

Source: Australian Bureau of Statistics, September, 1980.

Asats ref: Table 4.18

THE CHANGING AGE, COMPOSITION AND STRUCTURE OF
THE TEACHING FORCE - SOME IMPLICATIONS FOR
THE RECURRENT EDUCATION OF TEACHERS

Kerry S. Keogh

A. INTRODUCTION

During the years of rapid growth of student enrolments, systems responsible for school education were able to accommodate change of direction in education by recruiting large numbers of new highly qualified graduates each year to provide for the necessary change or innovation. The fall in the 1979 school enrolments formally signalled that the period of rapid growth was over and brought with it a major new dimension into the whole of education policy and planning, not least into the nature of policies concerned with teachers. When expansion ceases, the introduction of new education strategies or modifications to old ones can be achieved only by a redistribution of resources within the system. As fewer new teachers are recruited into schools, the average age and length of experience of the teaching profession will rise. The greater stability of staffing in the schools should bring about improvements in educational standards. But the contraction of the system as a whole requires special measures to ensure that the qualifications of teachers match the needs of the system it is serving. Planners will be faced with the problem of providing a staffing structure which will be flexible enough to cater for change in direction of the system as well as providing an effective career structure for the teaching profession.

This paper looks at the rate of growth of the school education system in terms of students, teachers and recruitments (Section B), analyses the fundamental changes in the composition and structure of the teaching profession as the system moves out of a state of rapid growth (Section C) and into a more stable state in the future (Section D), and finally discusses the implications of recurrent education for teachers. (Section E).

B. GROWTH OF THE EDUCATION SYSTEM

Teaching has presented the biggest single area of employment for persons, particularly women, with university and college qualifications. Whereas in 1979, 2.9 per cent of persons in the labour force were in teaching (Table 1) - 4.7 per cent of the female labour force were teachers; 6.7 per cent of the full-time female labour force were teachers - about 40 per cent of females employed in professional, technical and related occupations were teachers. School teaching as a profession is less significant for males but still represents 30 per cent of males employed in the professional, technical and related occupations.

Over the last thirty years the number of school teachers has almost trebled. This growth in the teacher workforce was substantially due to the growth in school enrolments, (influenced by the increase in the post-war birth rate and the flow of migrants to Australia), a decrease in the pupil teacher ratio and an increase in the participation of students in the later years of secondary school. These factors are presently in a state of change with a resultant slowdown in the rate of growth.

TABLE 1

Teachers in Australian Schools

Year	Number of Teachers	Average Annual Increase	Teachers as proportion of labour force	Female Teachers as proportion of female labour force
		%	%	%
1970	127,726	5.4	2.3	4.3
1973	143,998	4.2	2.4	4.3
1976	167,967	5.6	2.7	4.6
1977	175,088	4.2	2.8	4.6
1978	179,007	2.2	2.8	4.6
1979	183,522	2.5	2.9	4.7

School Enrolments. Table 2 sets out the enrolments in primary and secondary schools for 1960 to 1979. In 1979, for the first time school enrolments in Australia decreased. Although the overall decline, of less than 0.2 per cent, was slight, the 1979 data seemed formally to signal that the period of expansion in Australian school enrolments was over. The distribution of the 1979 enrolments differed from the overall picture in a number of important aspects. For example, the enrolment patterns of primary and secondary schools displayed different characteristics; primary enrolments continued to increase by about 0.4 per cent while secondary enrolments declined by 1.1 per cent. Also, student numbers in government schools decreased by 0.8 per cent, whereas non-government school enrolments increased by 2.0 per cent.

TABLE 2

Primary and Secondary School Enrolments, Australia, 1960 to 1979

Year	<u>Primary</u>		<u>Secondary</u>		<u>Total</u>	
	Number	Av. Annual Increase	Number	Av. Annual Increase	Number	Av. Annual Increase
	('000)	%	('000)	%	('000)	%
1960	1545	3.0	579	9.7	2124	4.8
1965	1664	1.5	771	5.9	2435	2.9
1970	1812	1.7	956	4.4	2768	2.7
1975	1811	-	1100	2.8	2910	1.0
1979	1877	1.2	1115	0.5	2993	1.0
1979	1884	0.4	1103	-1.1	2988	-0.2

Source: 'Schools'. Australian Bureau of Statistics.

Pupil-Teacher Ratio (PTR). Staffing standards in terms of pupil teacher ratios have continued to improve as set out in Table 3. In 1979, the pupil teacher ratios continued to decline: PTR in primary schools was down to 20.8 and in secondary schools to 13.0. Planning for further improvement in staffing standards will likely depend more on economic factors than on educational arguments. For example, salary costs alone of improving the overall PTR for Australia from 17.6 to 16.6 is about \$150m. at current prices. However, with a declining school population, staffing standards could improve without any further additions to the teacher workforce.

TABLE 3

Pupil Teacher Ratios in Australian Schools, 1970 to 1979

Sector	1970	1975	1977	1978	1979
Primary	28.0	23.2	21.8	21.6	20.8
Secondary	17.5	14.9	13.8	13.5	13.0

Source: 'Schools'. Australian Bureau of Statistics.

Growth of Teaching Profession in Schools. Table 4 sets out the number of full-time equivalent (FTE) teachers in Australian schools for the years 1969 to 1979. The number of teachers (FTE) has grown by just over 50 per cent from 114,570 in 1969 to 175,195 in 1979. The growth has occurred equally in both government and non-government school systems thus maintaining the distribution of government to non-government teachers of 4 to 1. More recently the overall annual rate of growth has declined from 6.0 per cent in 1975 to 2.5 per cent in 1979 with marked differences between the government and non-government sectors. In the government sector, the annual rate of growth of teachers (FTE) declined sharply from 5.1 per cent in 1977 to 1.9 per cent in 1979 whereas in the non-government sector, where the annual rate of growth in staff numbers had been declining since the early 1970's, the average annual growth rate increased from 3.3 per cent in 1977 to 5.0 per cent in 1979. This can be partly explained by the recently observed large transfers of students from government to non-government schools.¹

The growth rate of both primary and secondary staff, as set out in Table 5, has been declining at approximately equal rates thus maintaining the distribution of primary to secondary staff of 13 to 12.

TABLE 4

Full-Time Equivalent Teachers by Type of School, Australia, 1969 to 1979

Year	Type of School					
	Government		Non-Government		All Schools	
	Number	Av. Annual Increase	Number	Av. Annual Increase	Number	Av. Annual Increase
		%		%		%
1969	92141	5.2	22429	2.6	114570	4.7
1971	99115	3.8	24889	5.5	124005	4.1
1973	109132	5.1	26990	4.2	136122	4.9
1975	123441	6.6	28990	3.7	152431	6.0
1977	135931	5.1	30905	3.3	166836	4.7
1979	141210	1.9	33986	5.0	175195	2.5

Source: 'Schools'. Australian Bureau of Statistics.

TABLE 5

Full-Time Equivalent Teachers by Sector, Australian Schools, 1973 to 1979

Year	Primary		Secondary	
	Number	Av. Annual Increase	Number	Av. Annual Increase
		%		%
1973	70029		65211	n.a
1975	78390	6.0	74041	6.8
1977	85855	4.8	80981	4.7
1979	90667	2.8	84529	2.2

Source: 'Schools'. Australian Bureau of Statistics.

Diagram 1 shows the annual change in student numbers compared with the annual change in teacher numbers (FTE).

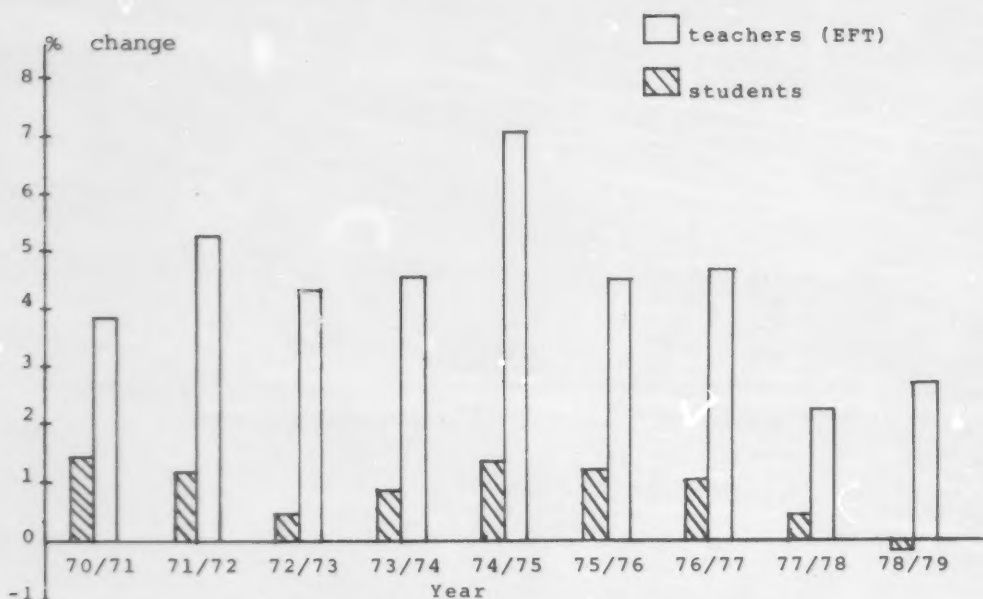


Diagram 1. Annual Change in the Number of Students and Teachers (FTE), Australian Schools 1970-1979.

Between 1974 and 1979, the total increase in the teaching profession was about 23 per cent compared with a 4 per cent increase in students. Teacher numbers increased more rapidly than student enrolments in both the government and non-government sectors and at both primary and secondary levels.

Changes to the characteristics and composition of the teacher workforce will depend not only on net change in the number of teachers but also on the staff turnover, i.e., it is influenced by the annual gross intake into the teacher workforce, particularly when about 70 per cent of the annual recruitment is required to replace teachers who leave the teacher workforce.

Teacher Turnover (Wastage Rate). The teacher workforce has for many years been characterised by a large proportion of the profession leaving the workforce, temporarily or permanently. This was predominantly because of the large proportion of females in the workforce who left to have families but also due, in part, to the phasing out of State Teacher Scholarship Schemes which attracted many students with little commitment to teaching, many of whom had sought alternative employment after little

or no teaching service. In 1974, just under 10 per cent of all teachers who left the teacher workforce retired. This retirement rate has remained fairly constant over the last five years and in 1979 the retirement rate was about three-quarters of one per cent of the total teacher workforce.

Table 6 sets out the teacher wastage rates for 1974 to 1979. In the early 1970's, teacher wastage rates were in the order of 12 per cent for primary and 14.5 per cent for secondary teachers.² With the decline in employment opportunities and the phasing out of State Teacher Scholarship Schemes, the teacher wastage rate began to fall. In 1979, the wastage rate was down to 5.5 per cent for primary and 5.6 per cent for secondary teachers. This sharp decline in wastage rates reduced the annual recruitment for the sole purpose of replacing teachers who left the profession by some 6,500 or 36 per cent in just five years.

TABLE 6

Annual Wastage Rates of School Teachers, Australia 1974 to 1979

Year	Primary	Secondary
1974	12.0	14.5
1977	9.0	10.0
1978	7.2	7.0
1979	5.5	5.6

Recruitment Into Teacher Workforce. Up to the mid-1970s almost all suitable applicants were recruited into the teacher workforce.³ In the past, State Departments of Education endeavoured to ensure an adequate supply of teachers by offering large numbers of bonded teacher training scholarships which required the newly trained teachers to teach for a specified number of years. Despite their efforts, the teacher labour market was in such a state of under-supply in 1974 and 1975 that some 8,500 trained teachers were contracted from overseas, mainly from the USA.

Table 7 sets out the annual gross intake into the teacher workforce. The intake peaked in 1975 when 28,861 additional teachers were required to make up the teacher workforce; this represented 20.8 per cent of the previous years total teacher workforce. Four years later in 1979, the gross teacher intake had declined to 16,753 or just under 10 per cent of the total teachers in 1978, a decline of 12,108 or 42 per cent of the gross intake in 1975. About 70 per cent of new recruits each year are required to replace those teachers who resigned, retired etc. and only about 30 per cent contribute to the net increase in teacher numbers. With the slowdown in the growth of the teacher workforce and retirements running at about three quarters of one per cent of the total teacher workforce, it is an upturn in the economy, and the employment market in particular, which would allow the turnover to increase, and, once again allow a healthy infusion of new blood into the education system.

TABLE 7

Annual Gross Intake Into The Teacher Workforce, Australia 1974 to 1979

Year	Intake due to net increase in number of teachers	Intake due to wastage	Gross Intake	
			Number	as per cent of prev. year's teachers
1974	6248	17965	24213	17.8
1975	10061	18800	28861	20.3
1976	6954	18248	25202	16.5
1977	7451	17103	24554	15.4
1978	3721	15825	19546	11.7
1979	4639	12114	16753	9.8
1980				7.5

C. CHANGING COMPOSITION AND STRUCTURE OF THE TEACHING PROFESSION

Patterns of Staff Resource Use in Schools. Although this paper's focus is on teachers, it is worth noting the changing patterns of resource use in the teaching process. Over the last ten years, schools have seen considerable change in the extent and nature of support that teachers receive both in the manpower sense (professional and ancillary staff as well as more general community aid) and in the technical sense (technology).

In 1972, the Interim Committee for the Australian Schools Commission⁴ reported 6900 support staff (personnel such as clerical assistants, teacher aides, library and laboratory assistants, janitors and groundsmen). By 1978 and 1979 the numbers of ancillary staff had risen to some 25000. Similarly in non-government schools, ancillary staff increased from 2450 in 1974 to 4000 in 1977. In 1978, professional support staff stood at 10,000 people in government schools and 1000 in non-government schools.

As the unit costs of micro-electronic equipment come down, computer assisted instruction is becoming a reality in schools. Already large numbers of schools are using television and television-related equipment for direct teaching of students. Technological changes have brought with them a changing role and function of schooling with particular implications for the teacher.

Sex. Table 8 sets out the percentage of female teachers (FTE) by sector and by type of school. Traditionally, students undertaking pre-service teacher education have enrolled straight from school, have been female, Australian born, and from lower middle class families.⁵ Presently about 70 per cent of students undertaking pre-service teacher education courses are female. This female dominance in pre-service teacher education is reflected in the teacher workforce, which during the 1970's was about 60 per cent female. There are distinct differences in

the sex ratio by type of school and by sector. In 1979, just over 70 per cent of primary teachers were female compared with 45 per cent of secondary teachers; whereas 57 per cent of teachers in government schools were female compared with 65 per cent in non-government schools. It is noticeable from Table 8 that the proportion of female teachers has recently been declining particularly in the non-government schools.

TABLE 8

Proportion of Equivalent Full-Time Female Teachers by Type of School and by Sector, Australian Schools, 1973 to 1979

Year	Primary	Secondary	Government	Non-Government	All Schools
1973	70.5	46.9	56.4	70.2	59.2
1975	71.7	46.5	57.3	68.9	59.5
1977	71.5	46.1	57.4	67.0	59.2
1979	70.8	45.4	56.9	65.1	58.5

Source: 'Schools'. Australian Bureau of Statistics.

Age. In the mid 1970's with teachers retiring at a rate of less than one per cent per year and a total turnover rate as high as 20 per cent, teachers remained a relatively young workforce. As the turnover sharply declined from the mid-1970's there were relatively fewer young graduates entering the teaching profession and the age of the teacher workforce began to increase. For example, in Victorian government schools the proportion of primary teachers 'under 25 years' as set out in Table 9, has steadily declined from 33.0 per cent in 1972 to 18.3 per cent in 1979. This change was reflected in the median age which increased from 28.3 years in 1972 to 30.1 years in 1979. Likewise, the proportion of secondary teachers under 25 years declined from 28.1 per cent in 1972 to 16.3 per cent in 1979, increasing the median age from 28.4 years to 29.3 years.

Although teachers in Victorian government schools became an older workforce it is noticeable from Table 9 that the proportion of 60-65 year olds, the potential retiring group, has steadily declined in all three sectors over the last seven years, particularly with primary teachers of whom in 1972 4.1 per cent were 'between 60-65' compared with 0.5 per cent in 1979. A similar trend has occurred for the 55-60 year olds.

TABLE 9

Age of Classified Teachers, Victorian Government Schools, 1972 to 1979

Year	Primary			Secondary			Technical		
	Median Age	under 25	Between 60-65	Median Age	under 25	Between 60-65	Median Age	under 25	Between 60-65
1972	28.3	33.0	4.1	28.4	28.1	1.8	38.0	3.3	2.6
1976	28.9	27.6	1.2	28.5	25.2	1.2	37.1	3.1	1.4
1977	29.5	23.2	0.7	28.9	20.3	0.9	36.2	3.9	0.7
1979	30.1	18.3	0.5	29.3	16.3	0.9	36.1	3.3	0.7

Source: 'Compendium of Statistics 1980'. Education Department, Victoria.

Table 10 sets out the age distribution of teachers in government and non-government schools in 1979. The median age of teachers in non-government schools is substantially higher than teachers in government schools: 34.1 years compared with 30.3 years respectively. The age of teachers in non-government schools is affected by religious teachers who are a very stable component of the teacher workforce - in 1974 the median age of religious teachers was 40 years compared with the median age for all teachers in non-government schools of 35.3 years. The overall median age of teachers in non-government schools has declined from 35.3 years in 1974 to 34.1 years in 1979. This decrease was related in part to the larger proportion of lay teachers in 1979 than in 1974, but was affected to a great extent by the decline from 27.8 per cent in 1974 to 11.4 per cent in 1979 of teachers 50 years and over. A similar trend has been seen in government schools where in 1979 some 8.3 per cent of teachers were 50 years or older and only 3.8 per cent were 55 years or older. This not only has implications for recruitment of teachers to offset retirements, but more importantly over the next ten years, when enrolments are projected to decline, promotional prospects will dramatically decrease.

TABLE 10

Age distribution of Permanent Teaching Staff by Sector, 1979

Age	Government Schools ¹	Non-Government Schools ²
	%	%
20-24	19.9	19.9
25-29	29.1	19.8
30-34	16.4	16.7
35-39	11.9	14.1
40-44	8.5	10.7
45-49	5.8	7.4
50-54	4.5	8.9
55-59	2.8	
60-64	0.8	
65+	0.2	0.8
Median Age	30.3	34.1

Note:

1. Teachers in government schools of New South Wales, Victoria, Queensland, South Australia and Western Australia
2. Full-time teachers in all non-government schools in Australia.

Full-time/Part-time. Table 11 sets out the number of part-time teachers in Australia. Since 1975 the number of part-time teachers has remained steady at about 15,600 representing some 7,400 equivalent full-time teachers. With the growth in the total number of teachers this has resulted in the proportion of part-time teachers (FTE) steadily declining from 4.9 per cent in 1975 to 4.2 per cent in 1979.

In 1979, just over three-quarters of the part-time staff were female (91 per cent primary and 67 per cent secondary).

In government schools, 2 per cent of primary and 5 per cent of secondary teachers were part-time (in FTE terms) in 1979. In the non-government sector, where part-time teachers comprise a high proportion of the total, the proportion of part-time primary teachers rose between 1975 and 1978 to 6 per cent; part-time secondary teachers constituted about 10 per cent of the total throughout the period.

TABLE 11

Part-Time Teachers, Australia, 1973 to 1979

Year	Number of P/T Teachers	Av. Annual Change	Number of P/T Teachers (FTE)	Av. Annual Change	Number of P/T Teachers (FTE) as proportion of total teachers
		%		%	%
1973	14,339	-2.6	6,463	-4.5	4.7
1975	15,594	4.3	7,421	7.2	4.9
1979	15,606	-	7,377	-0.3	4.4
1979	15,740	0.4	7,415	0.5	4.2

Source: 'Schools'. Australian Bureau of Statistics.

Indications are that although the number of part-time teachers has remained steady over the last couple of years the number of temporary teachers (FTE) is declining. For example the number of temporary teachers (FTE) in Victorian government schools has declined by 45 per cent since 1976 (Table 12).

TABLE 12

Number of Temporary (Full-time Equivalent) Teachers
in Victorian Government Schools, 1974 to 1980

1974	1976	1978	1980
6463	7887	6070	4279

Classification. The distribution of the classifications has not changed very much over the last few years. For example, in Victorian government schools just over three-quarters of the teachers are in the bottom classification of 'Assistant' and about 3.4 per cent are in the 'Principal' class (Table 13). Within a classification there are a number of increments which bring with them salary increases.

There are marked discrepancies in promotion positions with regard to sex. For example, in 1980, although women comprise more than two-thirds of primary teachers in Victorian government schools, 29.6 per cent of male teachers were senior teacher or above compared with 4.7 per cent of female teachers.

When the staffing system is expanding the creation of new positions creates opportunities for promotion. Such staff are appointed at or near the bottom of the salary scale and although there is movement up the ranges, average salary costs are held down. When the growth ceases, staff will increase in seniority with very few young teachers entering at the bottom. The cumulative effect, known in the tertiary sector as 'incremental creep', will increase staffing costs. With relatively young staff, and with the decline in the number of teachers 55 years or older, this situation will not be remedied by senior staff retiring.

TABLE 13

Distribution of Classified Teachers By Each Class;
Victorian Primary and Secondary Government Schools

Classification	Primary			Secondary		
	1972	1979	1980	1972	1979	1980
Principal Class	3.1	3.3	3.3	n.a	3.4	3.5
Senior Teacher	5.5	7.9	8.4	n.a	9.3	9.3
Assistant (R)	16.7	15.1	14.3	n.a	7.0	5.9
Assistant	<u>74.7</u>	<u>73.7</u>	<u>74.1</u>	<u>n.a</u>	<u>80.3</u>	<u>81.3</u>
	100.0	100.0	100.0	n.a	100.0	100.0

Source: Education Department, Victoria - 'Compendium of Statistics' and 'Teacher Statistics'.

Qualifications. As new standards were set for both registration and promotion of teachers, the teaching profession has progressively become more highly qualified; new, more highly qualified graduates have been recruited and less qualified staff have undertaken upgrading or conversion courses. For example, it has been necessary in Victoria, since 1973, to have a minimum of three or four years' training respectively for full registration as a primary or secondary teacher; for promotion all teachers require four years of approved study. It can be seen from Table 14 that the proportion of teachers in Victorian Government Schools with at least four years training has increased sharply from 44.7 per cent in 1974 to 62.1 per cent in 1980, whereas teachers with two years or less of formal training has declined from 23.3 per cent in 1974 to 7.3 per cent in 1980.

TABLE 14

Years of Professional Training, Victorian Government Schools
1974 to 1980

Years of Professional Training	August 1974	January 1979	June 1980
	%	%	%
4 or more years	44.7	58.1	62.1
3 years	32.0	32.2	30.6
2 years or less	<u>23.3</u>	<u>9.7</u>	<u>7.3</u>
	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: Education Department, Victoria.

The overall Australian picture as set out in Table 15 is somewhat different from that in Victorian government schools. In 1979, some 42 per cent of teachers in Australian schools had four or more years of training with a further 40 per cent with three years of training. On closer examination the extent of training varies considerably between primary and secondary teachers: the majority of secondary teachers are four year trained whereas the majority of primary teachers are three year trained with about 25% still having two years or less formal training education.

TABLE 15

Distribution of Number of Years of Training, Permanent Teachers* 1979

Years Training	Primary	Secondary	Total
	%	%	%
2 or less	23	12	18
3	58	20	40
4 or more	<u>19</u>	<u>68</u>	<u>42</u>
	100	100	100

* Includes permanent teachers in N.S.W. government schools, in Victorian government and catholic schools, in all Queensland schools, in Western Australian government and catholic schools, in South Australian catholic schools and Tasmanian non-government schools (approximately 84 per cent of all teachers).

In the mid-1970's teachers faced with qualification barriers for promotion, reduced prospects for promotion and the need to specialise turned back to the education system to undertake further studies, mostly on a part-time basis. Institutions on the other hand were faced with declines in the pre-service teacher education courses from 1975 and quickly shifted their resources into in-service type courses to cater for the demand. In 1976, there were 6055 students commencing post-experience teacher education courses; by 1979 the numbers had doubled to 12,492 - See Table 16. In 1980, the numbers commencing post-experience teacher education courses appeared to have stabilised with some 12,000 students commencing other than higher degree (OTHD) post-experience teacher courses together with some 780 commencing higher degree teacher education courses. In all, some 29,000 qualified teachers are enrolled in some form of post-experience teacher education work during 1980. If it is assumed that all the OTHD students are in the teaching profession, just under one in every seven teachers is currently involved in some form of formal teacher education course at a university or college of advanced education. Currently, about 60 per cent of these students are upgrading or converting their qualifications to a higher level with the remaining 40 per cent specialising. Consequently, some ten per cent of the teaching profession are currently involved in upgrading or converting their qualifications to a higher level. At this rate, it will not be long before the majority of the teaching profession will have three years, if not four years, of training and this source of demand for tertiary education will decline sharply.

TABLE 16

Students (OTHD) Commencing Post-Experience Teacher Education Courses
at Universities and Colleges of Advanced Education, 1976 to 1979
(actual), 1980 (estimated)

1976	1977	1978	1979	1980
6,055	7,853	11,688	12,492	12,056

Source: Tertiary Education Commission.

Similarly students commencing pre-service courses are moving away from the three year diploma courses to four year end-on or concurrent courses. In 1975, 56 per cent of students commencing a pre-service teacher education course commenced a three year diploma course compared with 45 per cent in 1979.

Experience and Mobility of Teachers. There are no current national statistics on experience or mobility of teachers. A Schools Commission survey of teachers in non-government schools in 1974 showed that over half of the teachers had less than 10 years of teaching experience. A repeat of the survey in 1979 showed that the median length of experience had declined. Table 17 sets out the length of experience of teachers in non-government schools in 1974 and 1979.

TABLE 17

Experience of Teachers in Non-Government Schools,
Australia 1974 and 1979

Years of Teaching	1974	1979
	%	%
1	6.8	9.1
2	6.1	7.6
3-5	18.1	17.5
6-10	23.7	23.7
11-15	15.0	16.3
16-20	9.8	10.2
21-25	4.9	6.3
25+	15.5	9.2
Median	10.0	9.3

Source: Schools Commission.

The Interim Report of the Committee of the Victorian Enquiry into Teacher Education⁶ points out that teachers' experiences outside the school system through secondments to universities and colleges of advanced education have dramatically declined over the last few years, thus reducing opportunities for exchange of ideas and opinions.

In 1974, a year in the growth era, non-government schools were staffed predominantly by teachers who had been only one or two years in the school at which they were then teaching. Table 18 shows that male teachers tended to have been teaching at their present school longer than female teachers, a reflection of their slightly higher average age. Fewer than 4 per cent of teachers had spent more than 15 years in the same school. As the school system tends to stabilise, the length of experience of the teaching profession will rise as well as becoming less mobile. The result will be a greater stability of staffing in the schools.

TABLE 18

Distribution of Teachers in Non-Government Schools by Length of Service in Present School, Australia 1974

	YEARS OF SERVICE						
	1-2 %	3-5 %	6-10 %	11-15 %	16-20 %	21+ %	
Males	48.9	23.9	15.9	6.0	2.8	2.3	100.0
Females	55.6	26.8	11.8	3.1	1.3	1.2	100.0
Total	53.7	26.0	13.0	3.9	1.8	1.5	100.0

D. THE FUTURE

Enrolments. The Commonwealth Department of Education⁷ has predicted that primary enrolments will decline from a peak of 1.89 million in 1980 to a low point of 1.7 million in 1987, a fall of ten per cent over seven years. This decline will be followed by a period of fairly rapid growth averaging about 1.9 per cent per annum. Secondary enrolments reached a peak in 1977 and, after a temporary decline, numbers should resume growth in 1981 and increase until the next short term peak is reached in 1985.

In all, school enrolments are expected to continue to decline until 1987 representing a total drop of 140,000, or 4.8 per cent, on the 1978 enrolments.

Teacher Numbers. The Tertiary Education Commission,³ in assessing teacher supply and demand for planning of the 1982-84 triennium Report, has estimated that the growth experienced by the teacher workforce will ease in the early 1980's and remain stable until the end of the 1980's. In keeping with the projected enrolments, there will be differences in the primary and secondary sectors of the teacher workforce. The number of primary teachers is estimated to continue to grow until 1982 when it will decline until 1986 before continuing growth. On the other hand, the number of secondary teachers after a pick-up in 1980 will slowly increase until 1986 before starting a decline. This mis-match of staff in an overall no-growth situation will cause problems for the managers of the system.

Recruitment into Teacher Workforce. The Tertiary Education Commission estimates that the annual gross intake into the teaching profession will decline to about 13,000 in 1980 and remain at that level until the mid-1980's³. This will represent a fall in teacher recruitments of just over 50 per cent in just five years between 1975 and 1980. Similarly, the turnover of teachers will have declined from 20.8 per cent in 1975 to about 7.5 per cent in 1980 and slightly further to 7.2 per cent by 1984. In making their assessment, the Tertiary Education Commission cautioned that the gross annual intake of teachers is very

sensitive to changes in wastage rates - a one percentage point increase in the wastage rate will increase the gross intake by about 1,800.

Diagram 2 shows that although the teacher numbers are not expected to decline in the early 1980's the annual recruitment of teachers is expected to decline further in 1980 and remain at that level into the mid-1980's.

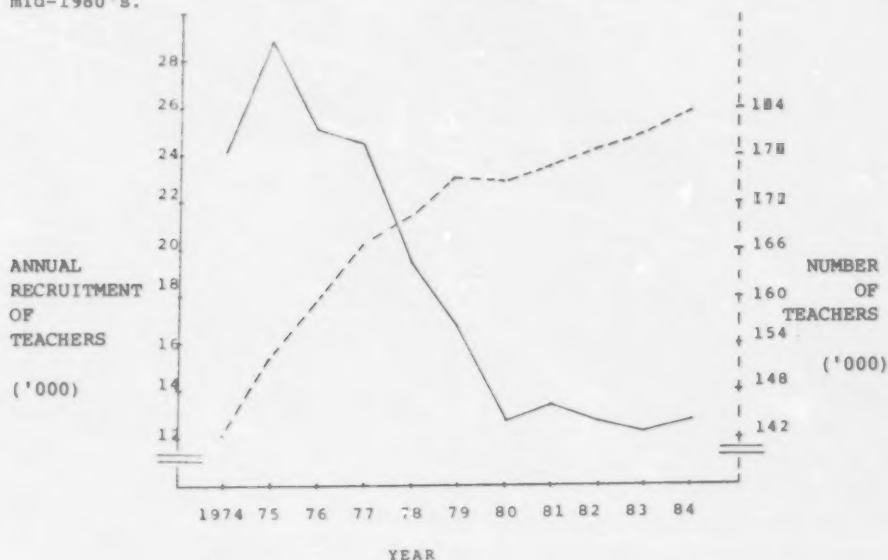


Diagram 2. Number of Teachers and Annual Recruitments to the Teacher Force, 1974 to 1979 (actual) and 1980 to 1984 (estimated).

Changes to the structure and composition of the teaching profession are not only influenced by the numbers recruited but also by the source of recruits, whether from newly trained graduates or from re-entering teachers. Most systems fill vacant positions with trained teachers who trained under a bonded scholarship (new graduates) and then fill remaining vacancies with the most suitable applicants irrespective of age or experience. In the current oversupply situation, some 75 per cent of vacancies are recruited from new graduates and the remaining 25 per cent are recruited from teachers re-entering the profession.

Number, Quality and Characteristics of New Graduates. Although intakes into pre-service teacher education courses reached a high in 1975, graduate numbers did not peak until 1978 (i.e., completed in 1977 and available in 1978) at a time when turnover was about 12 per cent, down from 20 per cent in 1975. The decline in the number of graduates has not been of a sufficient extent to allow a reasonable balance to be maintained with the sharp reduction of recruitment into the profession - see Table 19. Because of the number of students already in the pipeline

this situation will continue into the early 1980's. Based on 75 per cent of new recruits coming from newly trained graduates, it is estimated that about a third of the 1980 graduates (completed studies in 1979) will not be recruited during 1980.

TABLE 19

Recruitment into the Teaching Profession, Australia 1975 to 1980

Year	Pre-Service Teacher Education		Gross Intakes into the Teacher workforce
	Intakes	Completions in the previous years	
1975	23599		
1976	21681	16422	25202
1977	20439	18003	24554
1978	17885	18429	19546
1979	15772	16544	16753
1980	13786 (prelim.)	15730 (prelim.)	12199 (est)

Source: Tertiary Education Commission.

With intakes into pre-service teacher education declining by some 8,000 or one third since 1975, it could be expected that the standard of intake would increase substantially. This has not been the case. The demand for entry into pre-service teacher education courses, particularly for primary teaching, has recently declined to the extent that institutions faced with not being able to meet quota levels have lowered their entry standards. Data presented in the Interim Report of the Victorian Enquiry into Teacher Education⁸ and condensed in Table 20, indicates a disturbing tendency that the standard of intake into teacher education courses has declined while other tertiary courses have maintained a similar standard. It is noticeable from Table 20 that, while the intake into the 'Primary Teaching' course has dropped a third from 1975/76 to 1978/79, the mean 'Best-four' score has also dropped from 260 in 1975/76 to 247 in 1978/79. This 247 score for 'Primary Teaching' in 1978/79 compares with 267 for 'Kindergarten' and 265 for 'Secondary Teaching'.

TABLE 20

Mean 'Best-four' Scores of Students Who Received Offers of Places in
Teacher Education Courses or Courses Teaching and Teacher Education,
Victoria 1975-76 to 1978-79

Course	1975-76		1976-77		1977-78		1978-79	
	Mean Best-4 of Score	Number of Students	Mean Best-4 of Score	Number of Students	Mean Best-4 of Score	Number of Students	Mean Best-4 of Score	Number of Students
Arts	258	304	260	306	262	373	267	397
Science	276	1791	277	1735	274	2023	268	2111
K'garten	261	222	269	220	272	182	267	187
P. Teach	260	2037	264	1640	253	1651	247	1351
S. Teach	274	995	277	1048	271	1103	265	1171
Phys.Ed.	267	43	270	62	268	59	266	78

Source: R.G. Rowlands.⁸

This drop in entry standard is found in other states. Table 21 sets out the Tertiary Entrance (TE) score of school leavers entering pre-service teacher education courses in Queensland tertiary institutions in 1978 and 1979. In all cases there has been a drop in 'TE score' of up to 25 points. The large variation between institutions of up to 70 points is also indicative of the marked decline in student demand and in academic entry standards.

TABLE 21

TE Scores of Students Direct From School Commencing Pre-Service
Teacher Education Courses, Queensland 1978 and 1979

	Multi-Purpose CAE's			Single Purpose CAE's	
	Darling Downs D.Teach(P)	North Brisbane D.Teach(P,Pre)	Townsville D.Teach(P)	Kelvin Grove	Mount Gravatt
1978					
- TE Score	875	885	830	890	895
- Students	97	109	110	411	211
1979					
- TE Score	865	850	810	880	880
- Students	76	113	103	396	171

Source: Queensland Tertiary Admissions Centre.
Second and Third Annual Reports.

Although Gibb⁹ in his report to the Tertiary Education Commission observed that 'most institutions in pursuit of enrolment numbers have been accepting students with lower entry scores', no other courses have suffered as large cuts in intake quotas as has pre-service teacher education. The reason for the dramatic drop in demand is, in part, due to the publicity of a large oversupply of teachers, particularly at the primary level, as well as the phasing out of teaching scholarship schemes. In 1973 there were 16,200 new scholarships offered by State Departments of Education, by 1979 the number had declined to 4,400.

Rawlinson and Burnard¹⁰ have observed that in 1978 mature age students accounted for a median of 14 per cent of the total entry into pre-service teacher education courses in 24 institutions; two years earlier this figure was 10 per cent. This would have the effect of increasing the average age of new graduates and potentially add to the aging structure of the profession.

With declines in pre-service teacher education intakes, the proportion of female intake into pre-service courses has increased. As set out in Table 23, the proportion of female intake has risen from 69.4 per cent in the 1975 to 71.9 per cent in 1979.

TABLE 22

Female Intakes as Proportion of Total Intakes
Pre-Service Teacher Education Courses, 1975 to 1979

	1975	1977	1979
	%	%	%
University	57.2	59.8	63.6
College of Advanced Education	71.1	71.3	72.8
Total	69.4	69.9	71.9

Source: Tertiary Education Commission.

Consequences of Future Change. When the school system was expanding, it could commit itself to new activities and developments by distributing the annual increments of resources to areas of need; this is not to say that it was possible to exactly match the needs. When this expansion ceases it brings with it fundamental changes to the composition and structure of the teaching profession as outlined previously as well as the need for a different management style. The introduction of new educational strategies or modifications to old ones, in a non-growth environment, can only be achieved by a redistribution of resources within the system. Without 'conversion' training, school staff are not readily transferable between government and non-government schools, between primary and secondary sectors or between courses of instruction; and

without some special provision or program of staff preparation, it is almost impossible for a school system or individual school to enter into new activities. For example, a move away from chemistry to environmental science will produce an oversupply of chemistry teachers and an undersupply in environmental science without necessarily providing the resources to meet the shortage. Movements of these trends tend to be general, the result of which is at least a temporary mis-match of staffing resources to student demand. School systems quickly lose their flexibility and more emphasis tends to be placed on rationalisation, co-ordination, central control and effective use of resources. School systems and schools will turn their hand to evaluation and review of existing programs, policies and organisational structures, a task with which they have had little experience or personnel with high level skills. These changes will all occur at a time when opportunities for mobility and promotion of staff are declining. Staff will tend to protect their positions and become more conservative. Teachers will tend to seek qualifications in order to enhance their chances of employment and/or promotion - referred to as "credentialism". This self-sustaining trend leads to a lengthening of the period of formal education and an escalation of formal qualifications, without necessarily responding to the emergent areas of demand.

One of the major problems facing planners during the 1980's will be how to control recruitments and movements within the system so as to achieve the most effective staffing structure. A major conflict facing them will be the necessity to provide a structure which is flexible enough (and appropriately trained staff) to meet changes in direction of effort and to safeguard the careers of individual members so that they can pursue their work with confidence. Attention will focus on schemes of early retirement, redeployment, part-time/temporary/sharing appointments, portability of superannuation from government to non-government systems as well as the education of the teachers already in the system.

E. IMPLICATIONS FOR RECURRENT EDUCATION

As few new teachers enter the schools, the average age and length of experience of the teaching profession will rise. The greater stability of staffing in the schools which results from the marked fall in wastage rates of teachers should be seen as an opportunity to bring about significant improvements in educational standards. But the contraction of the system as a whole requires special measures to ensure that the qualifications and experience of teachers match the needs of schools.

Until recently teacher training institutions, which were not only faced with ever-increasing demands for new teacher graduates but also had to cater for significant developments in the training of teachers, were preoccupied with pre-service teacher education. At the same time school systems and individual schools struggling to accommodate burgeoning student enrolments were able to cater for change in part by deploying the significant annual additions of highly qualified graduates in the areas of need, and, in part, by relying on teachers with particular expertise.

More recently teacher training institutions were quick to move from a prime focus on pre-service teacher education, simultaneously with the decline in intakes into pre-service courses, into post-experience teacher education courses (see Table 23). But the focus of this redistribution of resources was based on a 'deficit' type model of recurrent education, i.e., lack of professional skills and credential requirements.

TABLE 23

Intakes Into Pre-service and Post-experience Teacher Education
Courses, Universities and Colleges of Advanced Education
1975 to 1980

Year	Pre-service	Post-experience
1975	23637	5609
1976	21684	6123
1977	20390	7976
1978	17979	11718
1979	15772	12492
1980	13800 (prelim.)	12000 (prelim.)

Source: Tertiary Education Commission.

The major source of demand for post-experience courses over the last few years has been from teachers wanting to upgrade their qualifications. The Tertiary Education Commission estimates that in 1980 alone some 10 per cent of the teaching profession was currently enrolled in conversion or upgrading courses with a further 5 per cent undertaking specialist type courses. This demand has been bought about by the tendency of the authorities to regard formal qualifications and length of education as a sieve or pre-requisite in the recruitment and promotion process. Teachers, on the other hand, faced with fewer promotional opportunities (with very few teachers in senior positions retiring and no new positions being created) tend to improve their chances of advancement by obtaining higher qualifications although the net result in the long run may be that no individual improves his position. With more teachers entering the profession with four years of training as well as the large number of teachers with four years training already (about 42 per cent in 1979) and those in the process of upgrading, the demand for these types of courses should continue into the 1980's but decline as quickly as they arose.

The Report of the National Inquiry into Teacher Education points out that although the education system is heading towards a downturn in student numbers there is considerable change both from within and outside of the system, and the functions of the system are expanding, due to:

- (i) the development of education policies both at the system level as well as at individual school level e.g. school-based curriculum development;

- (ii) rapid social and technological change;
- (iii) education authorities continually changing the education system with the carriage of new functions such as multi-cultural education or transition from school to work programs.

As the education system becomes responsive to such changes there will be mainstream pressure on the teachers - pressure from rapid social and occupational change; from involvement with the community; from greater personal responsibility for educational decision-making and development of curriculum; from a growing need to learn to use technology; and from pressures for accountability, with greater competition for educational resources. The education authorities will not only be faced with keeping the teaching profession up-to-date with their knowledge base, pedagogical skills and techniques, but also with maintaining the enthusiasm and motivation of the profession. A recent study¹¹ found that 'the passage of time on the job seemed to diminish their (teachers) capacity to change and to dampen their enthusiasm for innovations and for teaching'. This will be compounded by the lack of promotional opportunities in the near future.

The expected increase in stability of staff in schools may enhance the effectiveness of teacher development efforts if teacher development is seen as an integrated part of change in schools such as school-based curriculum development and the introduction of new technology. The implementation of school-based change, therefore, becomes an on-going learning and development experience rather than a one-off planning exercise. The tertiary institutions will play a necessary role in preparing middle-level managers as well as becoming a part of the on-going development process at the school.

In catering for new functions the authorities will continue to rely on the use of specialists, particularly in the short-term: specialists in aboriginal education, in multi-cultural education, career education, transition education, etc., the majority of whom will obtain their expertise by undertaking postgraduate diplomas provided by colleges of advanced education. Already in 1980, some 5 per cent of the teaching workforce are undertaking these types of courses. The demand for these courses should grow as the authorities cater for new functions and teachers see them as an avenue for advancement.

A more serious problem facing the authorities during the 1980's is how to cater for the inevitable mismatch of staff resources and student demand at a time when student numbers will be declining. Similarly, at the system level there is a possibility, in the short term, of having an undersupply of secondary teachers and an oversupply of primary teachers. If the cause of the mismatch can be assessed to be structural in nature, then authorities will be faced with retraining of staff. For example, a change in student preference from, say, languages into economics will create an oversupply of language teachers and an undersupply of economics teachers. On the other hand, if the cause is due to a short term effect, such as demographic changes, authorities would do best to appoint temporary teachers, thus maintaining a degree of flexibility.

The supply and pre-service training of teachers have dominated thinking about teacher manpower policy up to the mid-1970's. Over the last five years, which have been characterised by marked falls in the annual rates of teacher wastage and turnover, the commencement of a decline in student numbers, and an oversupply of teachers, training institutions redeployed resources into upgrading qualifications and providing additional skills, described as a 'deficit' model of continuing teacher education. During the 1980's few new teachers will enter the profession and the majority of existing teachers will have at least three years, if not four years, of formal training. The focus of this period will be especially on the adaptability of an aging and more experienced profession to changing needs and an increase in the functions of schools. This period is identified by what might be called a 'development' model of continuing teacher education. This model, whose seeds were sown in the Schools in Australia Report in 1973⁴, aims to meet the needs of the school system as a whole. But, as pointed out earlier in the paper, the marked decline in the recruitment of new teachers will also have an impact on the career opportunities of individual teachers and authorities will need to take action in the form of staff development in order to avoid stagnation.

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COMMENTARY, PART 1 - THE CHANGING CONTEXT

Mal Hewitson

In this section, a personal interpretation is submitted of the facts and ideas put forward by seminar participants both in the papers presented and in the ensuing discussion on the changing nature of Australian society and the implications of the change of context for education, schooling and the teaching role.

There is of course no question that Australian society is changing in fundamental ways. For example, demographic analyses reveal a Net Reproduction Rate of unity (zero population growth) and hence an aging population. Immigration policies are resulting in a substantially lower proportion of Anglo-Saxons to the total population, and the problems of coping with multi-culturalism and ethnic and other minority groups are legion. Rates of growth in the population are uneven between and within the States and Territories, and markedly so between the rural and urban-metropolitan sectors.

Permeating the whole fabric of the economy are structural changes associated above all with unrelenting development and introduction of modern technology and scientific advances on every front. The relative decline in the importance of primary and secondary industry as providers of employment, the failure of economic policies to effectively combat unemployment and inflation in a profit-motivated free enterprise system, and the lack of reconciliation between both the nature and the number of work skills now obsolete and those now in demand, continue to generate economic turbulence and an uncertain future.

Inevitably associated with fundamental demographic and economic change are socio-political changes. Policies designed to define and protect the rights of relatively weaker groups in society require formulation. The questioning of accepted values increases as the traditional resolutions of social and moral issues are revealed as inadequate and new issues continue to emerge. The structure and very nature of authority become problematic. Value conflicts between competing alternative interests appear to be the norm as greater control over the exploitation of the physical environment are possible while the qualitative outcomes in terms of improving the human condition remain in doubt.

Institutions formerly of major significance in rendering social life secure and cohesive have also changed. The influence of the churches has declined, the protestant work ethic has been eroded, and the concept of family in particular is in the process of restructure. The pattern of nuclear family life is now normal, single-parent and blended families are commonplace, parent-child relationships have altered, and latchkey children are everywhere to be found.

With so many changes of consequence simultaneously impinging on the present, it is feared that discontinuities between past and future may threaten society and destroy social cohesion, and that either alienation or apathy may become the characteristic response of a community

insufficiently equipped at both the personal and collective levels to make sense of their world and successfully come to terms with it.

Clearly, these changes have not left education and schooling untouched. Inevitably the schools and their staffs and students change in response to the changing societal context. The main issues appear to concern the extent, direction, and desirability of changes to date, and limitations and constraints which result in loss of control over both the change process and the nature of future changes to be implemented.

In recent years, the component of schooling which has attracted most public comment is probably the teaching role, first, as an economic problem, and second, as a set of professional activities. Though the two aspects of the role are clearly interrelated, it is useful to maintain the distinction for the purposes of analysis and discussion.

With regard to the economic effects of the changing context of schooling on the teaching role, Keogh (p.59) identifies the general problem facing educational planners as that of providing a staffing structure flexible enough to cater for school system changes and at the same time, providing effective career structures for teachers. Keogh's conclusion is reached after considering analyses of the teacher work force which show that:

- (a) in the last few years, the earlier period of growth in teacher numbers has been replaced by actual and projected stabilisation (p.64);
- (b) at the same time, teacher "wastage" rates (resulting mainly from resignations and retirements) have at least halved, so that the occupation of teaching now enjoys low rather than high labour turnover (p.64);
- (c) although recruitment into first-year preservice has declined dramatically since 1975, many teacher education graduates are presently unlikely to be employed as teachers (p.75);
- (d) during this period of decline, pupil-teacher ratios continued to improve and may do so further without additions to the teacher workforce (p.61);
- (e) the increase in the average age and length of experience of the teaching profession (p.59) is promoted in the first case by the entry of greater numbers of mature age students and in the second by the lower inter-occupational mobility of teachers;
- (f) whereas staffing costs increase as the ratio of senior staff salary costs to junior (new entrant) staff salary costs rises (p.70), prospects of advancement to promotional positions (and the feelings of recognition and self-fulfilment attaching thereto) are greatly diminished.

The economic picture of the teaching work-force is further confounded by imbalances developing in the overall system of schooling. Keogh (p.60) points to different student enrolment patterns for primary and secondary schools and Cameron (p.49) notes a shift in the proportion of students

enrolled in government and non-government schools. In addition, retention rates in Year 11 have risen in the face of reduced employment opportunities for Year 10 leavers, and the retention rate of girls in the senior school years recently surpassed that of boys (Cameron p.49). Such fluctuations in the pattern of student enrolments necessarily affect the demand schedules for teaching services of particular types.

Given the economic realities of the teaching service, employing and training authorities have been forced to react, first, by cutting down the alleged oversupply of teachers*, and second, by attempting to overcome any mismatch between established staff expertise and new student needs. The former strategy needs no elaboration, but the latter raises problems associated with (a) the redistribution of system resources under conditions of contraction or, at least, no growth (Keogh, p.79); (b) the maintenance of staff enthusiasm and motivation to maintain morale and avoid stagnation; and (c) flexibility of staffing at the system level as revised and new subjects appear in the school curriculum and the new technology becomes more fully integrated with teaching methods.

At least two main responses of school systems can be discerned in regard to these problems. The first is the vast expansion of inservice programs for teachers (see the Report of the National Inquiry into Teacher Education, 1980, Chapter 4, for a summary statement) which, as Beare and Van Raay (p.9), Cameron (p.52) and Keogh (p.82) indicate, are no longer mounted on the "deficit" model, i.e., aimed at teachers lacking in qualifications, knowledge and skills, but on a "development" model which recognises not only the need for continually updating professional knowledge and skills but also the need for personal, psychological renewal and growth.

A second discernible response of school systems to the need for greater flexibility and maintenance of morale in the teacher work force is the expansion of the use of specialists. As Keogh (p.81) notes, this is a two-pronged approach, enabling flexibility in the redeployment of existing human resources and at the same time providing teachers with one avenue for advancement. Moreover, tertiary institutions, themselves seeking higher levels of inservice enrolments to offset preservice cuts, have reacted swiftly by mounting full-time, part-time and external credit-bearing courses leading to an array of specialist qualifications. As vested interests are involved, however, it is worth noting Cameron's (p.53) call for caution over funding arrangements for any non-award courses that may be offered.

In addition to these main responses, further alternative or complementary steps may be taken at the system level in the interests of the teacher workforces. For example, insistence on four years of preservice education and the widespread introduction of earlier retirement from teaching may help to restrict entry to the profession and open up the promotional prospects of teachers in employment. Provisions for teacher exchanges and for study leave may help to alleviate morale problems by

* "Alleged" is used here deliberately, in view of the Australian Teachers' Federation view that there is not an oversupply of teachers but a foreseeable shortage of them.

generating enthusiasm and motivation. On the other hand, the possibility of making greater use of para-professionals and of temporary (contract) teaching appointments could have the opposite effects.

In general, therefore, the central problem which Keogh articulates, namely, that of maintaining a flexible staffing structure adequate to the changing times while providing an effective career structure for teachers, remains unresolved.

Yet it would be a mistake to attribute this lack of resolution solely to economic and social "facts" and the unresponsiveness of education systems to them. This is because the facts are subject to alternative interpretations according to which political-socio-economic theories are espoused. The philosophy of governments, based on espoused theory, is translated into government policy, which in turn helps to shape economic and social reality as well as to legitimate the distribution of resources and values throughout society. From this point of view, therefore, the superstructure of government policy is a more significant influence than the socio-economic infrastructure on the reactive capabilities of education systems in their attempts to adjust to the changing societal context.

Turning now to the teaching role as a set of professional activities, the position taken is that if schooling is to be a means of helping people live more purposeful lives, then teachers and their hierarchical superordinates need to appraise the societal context in which schooling is embedded and be prepared, both psychologically and professionally speaking, to adjust to change. Cameron's work, for example, suggests that despite the changing patterns of student participation in senior schooling, of student and societal expectations of schools, and of school-leaver employment opportunities, many educational administrators and practising teachers seem to act out their roles as if no changes had occurred. For example, success at school is still largely defined in academic terms according to the academic standards set by the academics themselves. For Cameron (p.51), the top priority in these circumstances is the provision of appropriate inservice programs aimed at developing teachers. He cites a number of research studies which report numerous sources of student dissatisfaction with and alienation from school, and concludes that many students have been undervalued by their teachers. In view of the rapidly changing society and the uncertainty of the future, more teacher-student interaction needs to be concentrated on developing student confidence and self esteem, personal identity, social competence and social commitment (p.53).

With the retention of larger numbers of youth who are not academic-career oriented, Cameron (p.51) believes that a wider variety of academic, vocational and personal development needs will intensify among upper secondary school students. There is evidence to show that many 15 and 16 year olds prefer to work than to go to school. If this is so because a job is associated with personal identity as an adult, then it behoves teachers to establish content, method and climate which will promote student satisfaction with senior schooling. Cameron (p.52) argues that it is in order to equip teachers with the necessary expertise that inservice education is first and foremost needed, and that, therefore, inservice programs should be school-focussed and oriented towards individual teacher needs. Others would add that they should also be school-based.

Among the context factors which have contributed to changes in the students themselves are earlier physical maturation, wider and more varied social experience, the media, especially television, films and modern magazines and books, and the increased purchasing power and increased mobility of young people. Changes in family life relationships have also affected student-teacher relationships (and probably student-authority relationships generally) and thus have added to the pressures on the teaching role.

The extent to which inservice programs to date have achieved desired changes in schooling is a moot point, but there can be little doubt that emphasis on teacher-student learning relationships which will assist student survival in a complex and changing society is preferable to emphasis on compulsion and hierarchical authority.

Accepting that modern youth exhibits a number of fundamentally different characteristics from the youth of a mere generation or two ago, and accepting that societal pressures impinge on youth with a force at least equal to that exerted on adults, one possibility is to view the teaching role and schooling as elements of an overall government-sponsored Youth Policy. Such a policy would seek to co-ordinate a network of human supports to meet human needs and, as the Report of the National Inquiry into Teacher Education, (1980, p.23) puts it, help compensate for the ill effects of despair, frustration, illness, violence, escape into drugs and suicide considered symptomatic of present-day Australian society. Perhaps school systems have already made a relevant start by introducing human relations courses and work experience and career education activities, but the notion of recurrent education for senior secondary students has not yet been explored in any depth.

This theme is taken up in an earlier paper by Smith (1979, p.25) suggesting that opportunities to drop in and out of formal education are an essential element of life-long learning and a reasonable expectation for students of school-leaving age. Smith, in fact, finds the distinctions made between work, education and leisure to be less and less meaningful (p.37).

This is not to say that Smith equates voluntary leisure with involuntary leisure or inability to get work. On the contrary, one of the major thrusts of Smith's paper is the concern he expresses about the impact of technological change on employment levels generally and on particular employment patterns, such as falling employment opportunities in banking, insurance, communications, retailing and typing (p.37). He goes on to make the broader point that at neither secondary nor tertiary education level can it be assumed that students can acquire all the knowledge, skills and competences they will need throughout their working lives, a recurring theme in discussions on teacher education, and one reason why the core of the Report of the National Inquiry into Teacher Education (1980) is inservice, not preservice, teacher education.

At the societal level, Smith is particularly critical of an unquestioning, almost fatalistic, acceptance of new technology. It is imperative, in his view that proper consideration be given to the social and human effects involved in regard to what technology is introduced, and why and how it is introduced into people's lives. For the new technology is not homogeneous in nature and effects, not is it value-free

(p.34). Its impact may be beneficial in certain respects, or harmful, or even both. The issue is that of control: the introduction of the new technology is too important to be left to the decision-making of technocrats, since not only are de-skilling and a redistribution of marketable skills involved, but also the distribution of information, opportunity, wealth and power.

It seems reasonable to argue, therefore, that empirical research into the effects of new technology should be preceded by conceptually-based policy analyses to chart the policy options and economic alternatives which are theoretically open to Australian society. As far as teachers and students in the schools are concerned, the Report of the National Inquiry into Teacher Education (1980, p.25) is quite emphatic that teachers be adequately prepared for assisting students to participate, manage and direct rather than merely reflect scientific and technological change.

Despite the abundance of evidence that the societal context is continuing to change rapidly in seemingly irreversible ways and that the students themselves have changed, Smith (p.37) sees the conservatism and stability of educational systems as the main source of inertia in education. The need is to foster adaptability in teachers as well as in students.

Obviously the level of conservatism varies between teachers and between schools. Some may be ultra-conservative, others are highly creative and imaginative, even radical. It is possible, however, that on balance the very pressures which create the need for system flexibility and individual adaptability cause some administrators to seek the stability and security which existing structures appear to offer, and some teachers to buttress their positions and protect their professional expertise by adopting a conservative stance. It is further possible, that, in their attempts to cope with and interpret the waves of change around them, they hold to the traditional authoritarian conception of the teaching role as a means of stress avoidance and preservation of self-esteem.

Hence some persistence of the traditional model of teaching with its emphasis on student regimentation and conformity, on teacher domination of teaching-learning interaction, and on bureaucratic authority relationships, is not to be unexpected.

Yet it is precisely on account of these aspects of the formal systems of education that, in Gloster's view, non-formal education is proving an attractive learning alternative. Whatever form it takes, whether autonomous learning, neighbourhood groups, action groups, consciousness raising groups, etc., lack of regimentation, equality of status and participatory relationships would appear to characterise non-formal education. In addition, the groups which work together tend to have strong moral and value solidarity.

Although it may be said that the general purpose of both formal and non-formal education is to help people make better sense out of their world, it is also important to distinguish between the two in that formal systems seek to achieve instructional objectives whereas non-formal education seeks to achieve the greater self-actualisation of participants, who may well be drawn from the adult population rather than the ranks of youth.

This is not to argue that formal (or systemic) education should not take a leaf from the non-formal book, more particularly in senior secondary, tertiary and other post-school courses. Applying content to the changing economic, social, political and moral context in which individuals find themselves and emphasising participatory learning rather than authoritarian methods are obvious examples. Nor is it to deny that formal systems may need to do more than make incremental and superficial adjustments to existing structures and, indeed, attitudes if they are to make an adequate response to the changing societal context.

On the other hand, it needs to be recognised that non-formal education may at times be authoritarian, exploitative, and where extremist religious groups are concerned, lunatic-fringe, witness the mass suicides in Guyana.

Given that very little is known about the statistical composition of participants in non-formal education, i.e., who the participants are, where they come from, why they participate and what satisfactions they experience, it may be that the high levels of participation and popularity which Gloster (p.44) reports represent not so much a by-passing of formal systems in a deliberate effort to belittle or destroy formal education, as an alternative means to making meaning out of the social environment and coming to personal grips with it. It is possible also that non-formal routes provided people who feel powerless in certain respects with opportunities to gain greater power at least over their own lives.

Gloster (p.45) is emphatic that participants in non-formal education are not to be regarded as casualties of conventional systems, seeking to return to them. Similarly, although he objects to the conventional wisdom that non-formal education provides systemic administrators and teachers with valuable guides to reform, it remains true that it may indicate the nature of some of the changes that may be needed to revitalise formal systems and foster effective learning throughout life, which is the ultimate purpose of the teaching role.

This is an appropriate note on which to conclude discussion on the changing societal context of education. A fairly high level of generality has been maintained in this part, though some of the implications drawn tend to encroach on the more specific issues to be addressed in Part 2 which follows.

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PART 2

THE THEORY AND PRACTICE OF RECURRENT EDUCATION
AND THE TEACHING ROLE

PART 2

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INTRODUCTION

In this part of the report, the focus shifts from the societal context and its significance for education systems to a more detailed discussion of teaching in terms of the theory and practice of recurrent education. The papers are sequenced within this part to identify the defining characteristics of recurrent education and their application to teaching; to examine external and internal influences on school functions and the teaching role and the implications of these for the recurrent education of administrators and teachers; and to investigate the bases of desired changes of attitude in the profession, along with an enumeration of psychological and practical barriers and constraints which need to be recognised and overcome. Finally, a number of constraints are drawn between schools and the Technical and Further Education (TAFE) sector of education, thereby enabling the main thrusts of the research and argumentation previously presented to be reappraised. In addition, however, the TAFE sector offers some insights on problems facing provision of recurrent education.

The first paper is E.A. Sommerlad's summary of the intensive research conducted by Duke, Sommerlad and Berry (1980) into the essence of recurrent education as opposed, say, to continuing education, inservice education or life-long learning. Alternative conceptions of recurrent education - as a radical reformist strategy on the one hand, and a conservative re-adjustment and co-optation policy on the other - are exemplified with reference to the professions (specifically to law) and the skilled trades (specifically to the electrical trades). Sommerlad identifies a number of profession-initiated moves which make for the wider adoption of the reformist model of recurrent education but attributes their introduction to a matter of survival rather than to any deliberate educational policy. Resistance forces are also discussed, and on balance, Sommerlad concludes that the conservative interpretation of recurrent education appears to have been adopted in Australia.

Sommerlad's conclusion is supported by D. Pettit, author of the following paper, who finds that, under the guise of reform, the teaching profession tends to make relatively minor adjustments to existing school structures and functions. His particular purpose is to show that the staff roles which have arisen over the last decade - namely, the pressure for parental involvement in school decision making, the pressure for stronger school-community links, and the pressure for closer school-employer ties - demonstrate clear need for the recurrent education of administrators and teachers to be conceptualised as a reformist strategy. Research findings on teacher perceptions of the major constraints on the attainment of their teaching aims underscore Pettit's argument, as does the lack of familiarity and experience of teachers with structures which can link the school with the community. A set of objectives for the

recurrent education of school staff is proposed, essentially aiming to develop the understanding and skills needed to improve links with parents and the wider community.

In the following paper, G. Evans also takes up the theme of school-community links, but does so from a different perspective. Evans sees school-based decision making as a fundamental action principle if real change is to take place in schooling, and this in turn entails not only decentralisation of decision powers to the local school level, but also the commitment of administrators and teachers to more effective involvement of parents and the community in the decision process. Within the umbrella of school-based decision making, Evans discusses three interrelated foci of concern, namely, co-operative school evaluation, the assessment of students and school-based curriculum development, all of which are problematic in some respects, e.g., in terms of coping with psychological constraints or with existing time and resource priorities. The overall thrust of the paper is directed towards teacher participation in school-based decision making, and Evans explores difficulties revealed by research on the effectiveness of inservice education before presenting possible linkages between client system (teacher) needs and the providers of inservice whether within or from outside the school.

Many of the problems which Pettit and Evans raise in the course of their analyses were also found by E. Whitehead during her case study of four religious teaching Orders. Her research demonstrates the social psychology of organisations in operation over a period of ten to fifteen years. During this period many organisational members at various hierarchical levels in the Orders underwent the psychological stress which can accompany radical change, and they reacted with a variety of coping behaviours.

At the heart of the change imposed on the Orders by Vatican II was organisational renewal based on two central principles which required, first, delegation of authority and decision responsibility to all members, and, second, respect for the dignity of each individual. Whitehead notes that it took about seven years for the implications of this change in the nature and exercise of authority to be grasped by the general membership. New commitments were then built enabling many of the problems of the change process (personal and structural) to be slowly overcome and heralding the emergence of a revitalised, adaptive organisation. The complementarity of Whitehead's work and the school and community foci of Evans and Pettit in relation to recurrent education for staffs of education systems at administrative and teaching levels is abundantly clear.

P.B. Botsman's paper follows, bringing into sharper focus what he terms a knowledge utilisation approach to recurrent education for teachers. Drawing on theory and research contained in the literatures on communication, systems theory, change, and innovation diffusion, Botsman points out that all paths lead to the need for knowledge linkers in the successful introduction of change, a conclusion which Whitehead's study also supports. He goes on to show that knowledge linkers have multiple roles to play and defines certain personal characteristics which make for successful role execution.

Botsman's paper complements Whitehead's work in other ways. The latter examines in depth psychological barriers and motivations to change whereas Botsman enumerates a range of economic, social, family and institutional barriers to change as well as factors related to the self-image. Both authors emphasise that recurrent education involves adults as learners, but Botsman shows that even among highly motivated adults, the decision to participate in further formal learning experiences is a complex one. He concludes by citing the most common learning difficulties experienced by a small sample of high school teachers in New York State.

The final paper in this part, that of M. Buxton and P. Keating, examines the philosophy, policies and practices in the TAFE sector of Australian education in so far as they relate to recurrent education. The paper fulfills a dual function. On the one hand, the TAFE sector is confronted with problems similar to those of schools with regard to the recurrent education of professional staff, although there are important differences too. On the other hand, unlike the schools, the TAFE sector is a significant provider of recurrent education for a wide-ranging clientele. These two dimensions of TAFE's activities as a consumer and a producer of recurrent education are obviously interrelated, and both are problematic, according to Buxton and Keating, in large part because the philosophy and scope of TAFE remain unclarified. As a provider of recurrent education, TAFE finds itself challenged in the mounting of courses, on one side, by the expansionary policy of the College of Advanced Education (CAE) sector, and on the other, by its ambivalent relations with industry and trade unions. Thus the authors believe that TAFE must resist CAE moves which would channel lower achievers into award-bearing TAFE courses, thus severely undermining the status of TAFE colleges. Equally important, TAFE must resist moves from the industrial front which would reduce its role to that of an instrument in manpower planning. Access to TAFE courses and from TAFE to other institutions is a closely related issue. Buxton and Keating also note that definitional problems and acute lack of research mean that little is known of TAFE teachers' perceptions of their role, their attitudes to significant issues and their motivations in resisting, adapting to or welcoming change. Nor is it known what effects all these may be having on TAFE as a provider of recurrent education, e.g., in the teaching of adult students. Clearly there are problems associated with staff needs to keep up to date with job skills in which they train students, with the impact of technological changes in industry and with consequent demands for course development competencies; just as clearly, such problems have to be resolved if the TAFE sector is to contribute to a flexible and adaptable learning society.

These general comments on the papers included in this part merely introduce the insights they bring to the theory and practice of recurrent education in Australia and the relationships of the teaching role to it. It is appropriate that the papers should now speak for themselves.

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INTRODUCTION

The term recurrent education (RE) has in recent years secured widespread acceptance in Western industrialized countries, among them Australia. Its meaning is, however, by no means universally understood and agreed. Analysis of its evolution demonstrates the unfinished nature of the process of concept formulation and clarification. This provides scope for educational administrators and others to mould it to their purposes as actors, not mere interpreters. Most research in the field of recurrent education has been oriented towards its clarification as a concept or 'policy metaphor'. Whilst an essential characteristic of the concept and approach is its emphasis on education as a sub-system of the total social structure and as a strand in social policy along with economic and welfare policies and programs, paradoxically, few attempts have been made to examine how such integration might be achieved in practice, what the implications of recurrent education might be beyond education itself, and what resistances might be encountered in adapting the present education system towards a recurrent model.

A recently completed study of recurrent education and the professions, funded by ERDC, sought to address these issues and provides the most recent and comprehensive Australian research study on recurrent education to date (Duke, Sommerlad and Berry, 1980). Entitled Plato and the Gardener, the study was approached somewhat as a dialogue between the RE concept and the practice of professional and trades education, in which each illuminated the other. This paper draws largely on the insights and research findings which emerged during the course of this two-year project.

Although most interest in recurrent education has centred on post-compulsory education in the 15-19 age group, any consideration of RE as a reform strategy for the education system generally must give due weight to professional education as one key to change. The professions occupy the most secure and highest prestige position at the pinnacle of the formal education system; through the professional schools in universities and advanced education colleges, their influence is felt throughout the higher and through much of the secondary education system. If there is an interest in educational adaptation towards recurrent provision, it is important to examine the nature of possible resistance at the point where this is likely to prove most firmly entrenched and intransigent; hence the rationale for particular interest in the professions.

The focus of this paper is not so much on what a recurrent education model for professional education would look like, as on whether RE is likely to make headway in Australia as an alternative strategy and approach to professional education. It is of limited utility to continue exploring and refining theoretical models of RE if the professions are resistant to the basic principles and reformist character of RE.

Consideration of recurrent education and the professions takes one beyond merely educational or pedagogic concerns into the heart of sociological inquiry about the role of the professions in society and the process of professionalisation.

A note of caution about generalizing across the professions: it is not the intention here to enter the debate about what a profession really is, or where the line is drawn between professions, semi-professions and other occupations. The dynamic concept of 'professionalisation' is preferred which identifies characteristics broadly associated with the professionalisation process: occupations differ from one another in the extent to which they possess these characteristics, the importance they attach to them, and the steps they take in working towards their further refinement or attainment. (See, for example, Houle, 1980). A dynamic view of the professions requires one also to attend to the interactions between defining characteristics of the professions and external influences impinging on them. The changing environment in which the professions find themselves and which gives rise to similar pressures on the professions may be experienced differently or carry different implications. Notwithstanding these constraints, an attempt is made in this paper to draw out the general implications of recurrent education for the professions and to present some of the research findings which would seem to be generally applicable to the professions.

Before looking at what recurrent education implies for professional education and for the professions more generally, we examine first the concept of recurrent education and then its current status in Australia. We should be alerted to the widely differing interpretations of recurrent education, as also to the suggestion that the RE concept may be more serviceable as a post facto rationalisation of changes occurring for other reasons than as a deliberate rationale and guide for change.

THE CONCEPT OF RECURRENT EDUCATION

Recurrent education has acquired a degree of familiarity since it was first brought to the attention of a wide audience by Olaf Palme about 1969 (Houghton & Richardson, 1974, p.6). Such familiarity, however, has not been accompanied by conceptual clarity and consensus as to its substance. Rather there is a strong measure of semantic elasticity in the meaning and use of recurrent education. This elasticity appears to be one basis for its survival through the very different circumstances from the late sixties to the early eighties. Given that RE sets out explicitly to straddle the boundaries which policy makers and administrators tend to erect between education, manpower and welfare policies, its prospects of survival as a concept of possible utility would be slight without a measure of elasticity and flexibility, and its capacity to be adapted to new socio-economic circumstances while yet retaining an appearance of relevance and some ability to dissuade and disarm. Such elasticity or fluidity of the concept has allowed it to be embraced by educational philosophers and administrators of various persuasions and inclinations, by the right as well as the left.

This elasticity in the meaning and use of recurrent education is reflected in its apparent radicalism on the one hand, or conservatism and acceptability on the other. Perceptions, definitions and reformulations

are, in part, possibly in very large part, specific to and dependent upon the situation in which they are formulated. This throws doubt upon the very concept of a, much less the, 'recurrent education model', of an ideal type generalizable through time and place. The circumstances and conditions prevailing within any one country - cultural, social, economic, political, technological - influence and perhaps determine its approach to a choice of strategies for education reform. Kallen (1979), in a retrospective analysis of the status of recurrent education, notes that "there is nothing such as one European concept of recurrent education. Few new concepts have given rise to such widely different and incompatible interpretations...." More often than not, he suggests, the trend is for concepts of this kind to become less rather than more clear as they gain the status of policy concepts and so gain acceptability through consensus and compromise.

The concept of recurrent education originated largely in the relatively socialist Scandinavian corner of the essentially free enterprise OECD countries, countries which prefer gradual reform and a measure of laissez-faire, free market development rather than a highly planned or radically changing socio-economic and government system. It emerged as one of a related cluster of concepts - industrial democracy, social equity, participative planning - all of which reflected the optimism of the late sixties and early seventies. At the core of this value system is an optimistic and humanistic concern for the dignity, autonomy and capacity for purposeful choice of the individual. To nurture and sustain such persons requires a participative, responsible society, the members of which take an active part in contributing to the common purpose or commonwealth, rather than adopting a passive, alienated, dependent or non-responsible stance. Thus essential themes running through early formulations of recurrent education are the democratisation of education, equity and social change in which RE is conceived as a bundle of strategies to effect reform in directions held to be desirable. As outlined in the initial clarifying paper (OECD, 1973), RE aimed to "emancipate the individual from socio-economic constraint" and to provide him with "the capacity and the tools for change".

Persistent themes running through the literature on recurrent education may be identified as: alternation, diversity, democratisation, relevance and updating. Although presented here as discrete, they are in fact interdependent and to some extent prove less helpful the more one employs them. However, together they provide some understanding of the systemic nature of recurrent education and the need for reform to proceed on several fronts.

Alternation is identified in the OECD literature as the key principle of recurrent education, referring to the alternation of education with other activities, of which the principal would be work, but which might also include leisure and retirement. In the context of professional education, the principle of alternation can be applied to all stages of the education process, including both the organization or design of initial training, as well as to refresher or continuing education which is post-admission. Alternation can take a number of different forms, depending on the importance attached to it as an organizing principle. At a systemic level, it would allow for multiple exit and re-entry points into education, with relevant work experience seen as a constituent

element in this process and taken into consideration for readmission purposes. Alternation might also be built into the structure of course design, e.g., cooperative or sandwich education in which students are exposed to classroom experience and work experience in a planned manner through periods of full-time study and full-time work. Commitment to alternation might be reflected in provision of alternative modes to full-time study, such as part-time and external courses which permit integration of study and work on a continuous basis. Finally, a concession may be made to facilitate alternation, e.g., through deferment of a university place for a specified period, which is not regarded as enhancing the learning process or integral to course design.

Diversity in recurrent education stresses learner-oriented teaching. Because people differ greatly from one another in learning needs and styles, RE proposes that there should be a choice and diversity of means of study and paths for entry into a profession.

Democratisation of the education system is a sensitive but central concept within the cluster of values and purposes which comprise recurrent education. It may mean removing the disadvantage suffered by different ages, ethnic groups, the female sex, as well as different social classes or socio-economic groups. It may be achieved by positive discrimination or perhaps merely be removal of barriers: barriers of a financial kind, attitudes discouraging those not from a middle class culture, entry requirements and prerequisites which represent obstacles to those not following a conventional career path through secondary and tertiary education, as well as barriers in terms of time, place, and mode of delivery of education services suggested by the related concept, diversity. In particular, democratisation of education is intended to provide access to formal qualifications - the marketable commodity which is the most tangible reward and frequently the main pre-occupation of students and their parents looking to the education system. Democratisation can be taken further if, as the original OECD clarifying report of 1973 advocated, qualifications are conceived as steps on a life-long career and personal development path, and if there could be intermediate steps with right to practise (for instance, through adaptations of the article, apprenticeship or para-professional system) at levels other than that of full professional membership.

Relevance is often cited as a powerful motivator for learning, especially among adults, and so as a strong basis for recurrent education. It is used loosely and generally, both to refer to the relevance of subject matter under study to present and future circumstances and aspirations (such as the willingness to undertake skill and drill training or theoretical study if the relevance to a sought job or other social role can be clearly perceived and felt) and also to the connectedness, and form of connection, between what is already known and believed and what is intendedly being taught or learned. Relevance is also employed in a sociological rather than psychological sense to mean how far the products of the education system match the needs of the economy and can accommodate rapidly to the changing nature of the workforce and demand for skills.

Updating, implying the need to remain abreast of developments beyond the point of initial professional qualification, is a central theme of

recurrent education. The concentration of education in the early years of life is incompatible with the objective of giving the individual access to and control over knowledge throughout his life; the notion of professional competence requires the individual professional to be engaged in an ongoing updating process as initial skills, knowledge and professional roles and values become obsolete. Updating may or may not mean recertification; it may suggest formal educational provision leading to a further qualification or courses not for credit; it may mean provision of non-formal modes of learning and facilitation of self-directed learning.

Further consideration of these theses and the relative importance attached to each of them provides some indication of the elasticity of recurrent education and of its innate radicalism on the one hand and conservatism on the other.

In its radical formulation, RE is a strategy for systemic reform of the education system, along the different dimensions identified above. With its emphasis on work experience, mature entry, non-academic criteria as relevant to selection, breakdown of education into smaller steps, each step constituting a point of access to a higher qualification, alternative paths to full time university study, and relevance of curricula to the job to be performed, it carries far-reaching implications for the accreditation process, socialisation into occupational and professional roles, the meritocratic functions of education, the relationship between para-professionals and professionals, and so on. Significantly, it may be seen as challenging the nexus between schooling/education and certification, particularly where access to qualifications is tied into extended periods of full-time study. This provides some clues to the resistance to recurrent education encountered on the part of the professions - an issue we explore further below.

Those taking a more conservative view of recurrent education, on the other hand, may choose to ignore its systemic character and implications for reform of education generally, laying emphasis instead on those elements which imply refurbishing of the present education system to make it more adaptable to changing circumstances, while preserving its essential characteristics. Thus in the professions, recurrent education has come to be equated almost without exception with continuing education or updating. This is very apparent in submissions by the professional bodies to the Williams Inquiry into Education, Training and Employment which had as one of its terms of reference, recurrent education (Sommerlad, 1980). RE might thus serve to enhance the functioning of the meritocracy, contribute to further credentialling in society, reinforce professional status and mystique and act as a stabilising force, assisting society and the education system to adjust to new circumstances with minimal change.

THE STATUS OF RECURRENT EDUCATION IN AUSTRALIA

Although recurrent education has secured a degree of familiarity in Australia, support for the concept tends to be restricted to principle (or policy) rather than practice (or operation). This situation seems little different from that in other OECD countries. Indeed, in OECD's own October, 1979, review of RE Trends and Policies for the 80's, it

acknowledges "it is ...not unduly cynical to pose the question whether recurrent education, originally conceived during the period of educational expansion, will face the fate of being one of those educational ideas that are verbally and policy-wise accepted and supported but with very little impact on educational practice. Such a scenario certainly cannot be excluded ...". Kallen (1979) also notes that "in the education sector, recurrent education has not taken deep root, except where it could be exploited to the advantage of existing types of education". He observes the relatively greater progress towards a comprehensive RE policy in the Nordic countries whereas in the Anglo-Saxon countries, including Australia, a more complex situation has prevailed because of the existence and growing strength of extramural schemes, further education and the like. This is reflected in the tendency for RE to be equated by the professions with continuing education leaving untouched initial professional education; those responsible for continuing education provision have a vested interest in maintaining the present segmentation.

The Inquiry into Education, Training and Employment (Williams, 1979) included recurrent education as a specific term of reference, providing an opportunity for the Committee to adopt RE as an overall strategy or policy framework for reform of the education system. The reader of the Williams Report will, however, search in vain for any statement about the concept of recurrent education, whether as a philosophy, an idea, a bundle of strategies, or a set of short-term tactics. While the term itself is used sporadically throughout the Report, no special significance is attached to it, which is all the more surprising given that it is primarily a strategy designed to bring education and work into closer harmony and interdependence, as the Williams Report itself was intended to do. By contrast, the Kangan Committee's Report of Technical and Further Education (1974), as well as the report on Open University in Australia (1974), took recurrent education as a guiding principle and a long term goal. This is consistent with a generally more favourable response to the idea of recurrent education in the trades area compared with the professions, for reasons touched on below (Duke, Sommerlad and Berry, 1980).

While it is accurate to say that recurrent education has made little headway in Australian as a strategy for change of the education system, nonetheless a number of trends towards recurrent education are discernible. Chief among these is the interest of the professions and other bodies in continuing education, and of the trades and other skilled occupations in retraining. The seventies also witnessed cautious democratisation of higher educational institutions expressed through such reforms as adoption of admission policies facilitating more open access, limited recognition of work experience for entry purposes, and the possibility of deferment of a university place or interrupted study. Greater attention has been paid to provision of alternatives to full-time study, including increased opportunities for distance learning and part-time study. If one looks at these changes in a piecemeal way, there are signs that the education system is evolving towards an RE model. An analysis of recommendations contained in the Williams Report similarly implies a shift towards recurrent education, despite its failure to articulate any overall recurrent educational policy framework or set of guiding principles for educational reform.

A shift towards recurrent education through random, unconnected and piecemeal changes, as implied by the above, does not necessarily lead to improvement, much less represent the best of all possible worlds. At the same time, it must be acknowledged that this is how change towards recurrent education takes place and is likely to continue to occur. It suggests, however, that the main function of the concept, recurrent education, is to explain, post facto, and to rationalise, rather than to provide a strategy for education reform. As such, it may facilitate the relatively painless adaptation of the education system to a new situation and new demands upon it and for this reason be worth promoting and supporting.

Study of the evolution of the education system towards a recurrent model suggests that the impetus for educational reform arises more from economic, social, technological and other market forces impinging on education than from any deliberate adoption and implementation of educational policy. Rising unemployment, technological innovations, demographic trends reflected in declining student numbers, and rising community expectations of professionals are among those external forces compelling adaptive responses by educational institutions if they are to survive. It thus makes sense to think of recurrent education in Australia, not as a way of bringing about general social change or producing a new breed of teachers or lawyers or doctors, but as a means of accelerating the adjustment of the education system to secure its survival in a changing world.

RECURRENT EDUCATION AND THE PROFESSIONS

The seventies have marked a crisis point for the professions. Those characteristics which served to insulate them from the wider society - homogeneous membership, self-regulation, professional culture - are now breaking down under pressures impinging directly on the professions, compelling a questioning of their role and reappraisal of their social organization. Oversupply in many professions is already a reality, fostering internal tensions as well as contributing to a breakdown of the monolithic nature of the professions. As more and more qualified professionals are forced into work roles on the periphery of their profession where their primary loyalty may be other than to the ethics and norms of the profession, the position of the profession in society is correspondingly weakened. This is very apparent in the legal profession where significant areas of legal practice now include work with large corporations in the commercial sector, work with the government as public servants, work with community law centres and with special interest groups such as consumers, tenants and Aborigines. Whereas lawyers' prime loyalty has traditionally been to the Court and to their professional code of ethics, a significant number of lawyers now look beyond the profession for their reference group as to desirable behaviour and orientations. Corporate lawyers are expected to serve the needs of their employers; government lawyers are bound by public service requirements; and lawyers working for special groups, especially oppressed, disadvantaged minority groups, frequently see their prime allegiance as being to them rather than to the rules of the Court. One result of these expanding roles for lawyers is that members are less bound by common values, norms and orientations which ensure their cohesion as a group.

The hegemony of the professions in society is further challenged by rising levels of education among the general population and increasing expectations of professional service. In many professions, the client or consumer has typically been an individual with little redress against incompetent professionals and few opportunities to engage in dialogue about appropriate roles for the professions in society. As consumer groups become organized, they are beginning to exert pressure on professional bodies. This may be achieved through such developments as the formation of School Boards, the establishment of consumer associations as in the health and legal fields, or through legislative action allowing for consumer representation on regulatory bodies of the professions as in recent proposals of the NSW Law Reform Commission for restructuring the legal profession in that State.

There are significant shifts towards deprofessionalisation, as also towards recognition of the important role played by para-professionals and non-professionals. Parents are involved in classroom activities, lay advocates are already playing an important role in dispute settlement and are replacing lawyers in shop-front community law centres as a first referral point, and para-professionals are assuming more responsibilities in the health field. As Government adopts a more central role both in provision of professional services (e.g. Legal Aid Commissions) and also in underwriting the costs of professional services (e.g. in health care), more attention is being paid to economic considerations and to the need to keep down public expenditure on professional services. There is thus increasing recognition of the role that might be played by para-professionals, leaving fully qualified and expensively trained professionals to undertake work of a more specialist nature. Many professions also face challenges from within their own ranks, making them more vulnerable to public criticism and scrutiny. The medical and legal professions, for example, have seen the emergence of radical splinter groups - the Doctors' Reform Association and the Australian Legal Workers Group - which, it has been suggested, represent a breach in the united front of the profession and may act as a Trojan horse giving support and leverage to pressures for change from outside (Duke, Sommerlad and Berry, 1980). The teaching profession, while much less homogeneous, is nonetheless vulnerable to some of the same pressures. The economic situation since the mid-seventies has slowed down and largely put to an end social and occupational mobility through and out of teaching; hence the critical oversupply of places in teacher education. As a consequence this large profession has become a resting place for the great majority who now enter it rather than a stepping stone for a substantial minority who come through each year.

Many professions, faced with changing economic circumstances and a shift in community values, have begun seriously to confront wider questions about their identity and role and the possible need for substantial change. In some instances, this process has been initiated by the profession itself, for example, the engineering and architecture professions; in others it has resulted from Government initiative such as the National Inquiry into Teacher Education and the NSW Law Reform Commission Inquiry into the Legal Profession. Proposals for adaptation of the professions to these new realities range from reforms in professional education to produce new and better equipped professionals for the future, to restructuring of the professions themselves.

What seems to be emerging as one likely future scenario in a number of professions, for example, medicine and law, is the need for a smaller but more highly skilled group of professionals. There is recognition that professional tasks are becoming increasingly complex, as a result of the introduction of new technologies, expanding legislation, knowledge explosion, and as the inter-dependencies between specialised fields of knowledge require a shift towards more complex integrated systems. This is accompanied by recognition that many tasks currently undertaken by expensively trained professionals could be performed competently by technicians and para-professionals. This profile of the future profession as a small, highly qualified, elite group of professionals and a rump of less qualified performing more routine tasks would seem to overcome many of the problems currently experienced by the professions such as oversupply, drain on the public purse, over trained for many tasks, inability to respond to challenges of the future. For example, a study of present trends and future prospects in Australian medical schools by Sheldrake and others (1978) concludes: "The most likely future is that medicine will move towards a more clearly differentiated two-tier system. In this scenario, the primary care function is essentially taken on by a nurse practitioner rather than a doctor, and doctors provide the specialised second stage service". In the legal profession, similarly, some reformers suggest that survival of the legal profession requires recognition of para-legals as well as development of a super elite of highly trained lawyers (Nash, 1979).

Others in the professions argue for reforms in professional education as one way of resolving the sense of crisis in the professions. There is an interest in curricula reforms that might prepare professionals for a wider range of roles and public interest concerns; there is some fundamental questioning of selection procedures, including reappraisal of academic criteria as the most appropriate basis for selection; new forms of teaching and learning are being introduced, including integration of academic and practical work in the early years of professional education; increasing emphasis is being placed on continuing education.

Many of these proposed reforms, and others already introduced into professional education and higher education generally, are consistent with an RE approach and suggest piecemeal adaptation of the education system in that direction. However, there are other trends apparent in professional education, at least in some professions, which are decidedly antithetical to RE, casting doubts on inexorable adaptation of the education system towards recurrent provision. In an earlier section, it was noted that pressures for adaptation of education towards RE emanated more from economic and other external factors than from any commitment to RE, itself or, indeed, to any other educational strategy as such.

Again, the legal profession illustrates this point. Notwithstanding a number of developments in legal education supportive of the key principles of recurrent education - alternation, diversity, democratisation, relevance and updating - the main trends and new directions are away from rather than towards more recurrent provision of legal education. The most recent report on legal education, the Bowen Report (1979), argues for a degree in law as a prerequisite for admission and expresses strong preference for law as a combined degree or graduate degree necessitating an increasingly long period in full-time study

before admission. It also recommends the narrowing of entry paths into the profession by eliminating external non-degree study courses through the Admission Boards which have traditionally provided an alternative route into the profession, and places continuing emphasis on academic criteria as the basis for selection into law. These reforms reflect a view of the lawyer and of the legal profession of the future, where the need is for a more highly qualified professional able to meet the new demands of a rapidly changing and more complex society. If the lawyer is to fulfil the canons of professionalism, he needs longer training and a more academic rather than applied orientation.

Nursing is another example where pressure for change has been towards longer periods in full-time education, in which a dominant motive for reform is the drive for professional status. Emphasis on education rather than training, full-time study rather than integrated practical and theoretical study, inclusion of more abstract subjects in the curriculum, and lengthening of the number of years before certification, are accompaniments of the professionalisation process and run counter to the inherently democratising tendencies of recurrent education. The pressure within the nursing profession to take all nurse education into institutions of higher education and away from hospitals may make it less accessible especially to the least confident and advantaged - girls in the more remote areas who get their training in rural hospitals are likely to lose the training function if such work goes to the CAE's.

It might appear, then, that RE is antithetical to the very notion of professional education. This is not necessarily so. It is possible to conceive a situation in which access to a profession is more open and where higher skills training and specialisation occur after the basic qualification is attained. Indeed, proponents of RE would probably maintain that democratisation would enhance the quality of professional recruitment - and therefore the capacity for specialisation and advanced study - by increasing the pool from which talent may be drawn.

In reality, however, RE as an overall strategy for reform is inherently radical and threatens the social organization of the professions and undermines their vested interests. Why this should be so requires an understanding of the symbiotic relationship which exists between the professional associations and the educational institutions. Central to the profession's entrenched position at the pinnacle of society is the homogeneity of outlook, values and behaviour of its members which enable it to assume a monolithic stance. This is achieved through various regulatory mechanisms, but principally through socialisation into professional roles which is a function of the professional faculties in educational institutions.

RE carries with it some profound implications for professional socialisation. In its stress on alternation between work and study and on restructuring education to enable individuals to move in and out of education and to follow a career in small steps by progressively building on qualifications and experience, the sort of person coming into professional education is likely to be of mature age rather than a school leaver, as is now the case. One consequence is that the adult learner is less likely to be affected by the hidden curriculum, the socialisation and inculcation of mores and behavioural norms, than is the school

student with less previous experience and few established conceptual and perceptual frameworks.

This suggests that recurrent education is likely to be deficient in conventional processes of socialisation, and to the extent that professional socialisation is perceived as an important element of professional education, there is likely to be resistance to recurrent professional education. The finding in Plato and the Gardener that the trades area was much less resistant to the idea of recurrent education than the professions may be because it matters less to society that plumbers do not behave like stereo-type plumbers than that doctors do not play the expected role and type of doctors; also, that trades education or training is less ambitious in its claims and in its social and educational standing than professional preparation; the one is more commonly called training, the other education.

Control over their own socialisation processes is important to the professions. The shift in curriculum to more general and abstract conceptual material and the longer period of pre-service preparation (and especially of trainee practice in the form of internship) are means of laying claim to and securing professional status. Professional values, norms and ethics are understood in their abstract sense and internalised to the point where the mature professional can operate autonomously and is not in need of supervision, one hall-mark distinguishing professionals from lower status categories of occupation. There are then considerable pressures of a sociological kind standing in the way of easy conversion of professional education to a relatively free, socialisation-free recurrent education.

This sketch of what RE might mean for professional education, reinforced by a hostile response from the legal profession to the ideas of recurrent education, suggests that hopes should not be high for rapid, consensual transformation of the education system towards recurrent education provision. The central proposition or paradigm of recurrent education is only likely to be adopted in the Australian context as a consequence of a major crisis and then probably as an imposed rather than a voluntarily adopted change.

ASSURING PROFESSIONAL QUALITY

If RE seems unlikely to be embraced as a strategy for educational reform, what changes in professional education might be acceptable and encouraged that would assure professional quality? It is important to state at the outset that education is not the panacea for the problems of the modern professions, nor will it alone assure professional quality. Other ways to assure high quality include self-policing and enforcement of codes of ethics, use of operational routines that prevent or minimize error, the development of patterns of service that take account of changing times, the enactment of laws and establishment of regulations to safeguard the public interest, and the vigilant determination of the people served that high standards will be maintained. These policies and practices are not additions to education; they are interwoven with it.

The most important challenge to professional education is to reconceptualise the education of professionals as an activity that occurs

throughout life. This represents a significant departure from the traditional view of pre-service education as the centrepiece of education which prepares a professional for his life's work. It differs also from the more 'liberal' view which emphasises continuing education while leaving untouched initial professional education. Professional education, viewed as a lifelong process, necessitates an integrated approach to learning in the professions: vertical integration in which initial professional education, practical training prior to admission to practice, and continuing or inservice education are seen as part of a continuum rather than as segmented stages; and horizontal integration in which formal education and other non-formal and informal opportunities for learning are provided to enable the individual to learn in a variety of ways at different times.

Such reconceptualisation of professional education carries administrative and financial as well as educational implications. Nor can its societal implications be ignored - while it may be introduced as a means of assuring professional quality, its unintended consequences may be a strengthening of the credentialling spiral and an extension of disabling, dependency-fostering schooling throughout life.

The existing segmentation between different phases of professional education is reinforced by administrative arrangements. Initial professional education is generally the responsibility of educational institutions, although members of the profession may have an advisory or monitoring role in relation to it and the professional associations may use their accrediting powers to compel changes, most often in the direction of lengthening and upgrading courses. Continuing education, on the other hand, is primarily seen as a responsibility of the professional bodies, or in some instances the employing authorities, although the educational institutions also make provision here particularly in the area of credit study such as diplomas, master's degrees and other post-graduate awards. Viewing professional education as a lifelong process necessitates some administrative machinery that will bridge this segmentation and permit those responsible for different phases of professional education to reconceptualise their respective roles and responsibilities. A barrier to such a development may be the desire for autonomy on the part of the educational institutions.

One finding to emerge from the study of the legal profession and its attitude to recurrent education was that overall, legal educators see it in their interest to disentangle legal education from the preparation of practitioners. For them, RE raises again the spectre of influence of the professionals over education with its emphasis on work and study and the integration of academic and practical, at a time when educators prefer to make more gradual changes diminishing the vocational orientation of professional education. This phenomenon is likely to characterise other professions also subject to the rapid growth of tertiary institutions in the sixties and seventies which was accompanied by the professionalisation of educators as a distinct occupational group, claiming privileges as a profession and demonstrating an increasing reluctance to be accountable to bodies outside the profession of education. The Williams Report (1979) makes reference to the tension between academics and the professional associations, decrying the influence exerted by the latter through its accreditation processes on

professional education. It quotes from the Ontario Commission on Post-Secondary Education (1972, p. 430) which is unequivocal on this score: "That in professional and para-professional education, colleges and universities must free themselves from the hold of professional associations and become more than previously sources of innovation in generating professional knowledge and in devising suitable means for its delivery to individuals, groups and communities". These resistances should not hinder the process of designing and implementing administrative arrangements that facilitate the implementation of professional education as a lifelong process, but awareness of them might foster some realism as to why support for the concept may not go beyond rhetoric.

The different methods of financing pre-service and inservice education also pose problems for reconceptualising professional education as a continuum. Initial professional education is funded through regular channels by recurrent grants to tertiary institutions. Continuing education, on the other hand, is largely expected to be self-financing except where it takes the form of post-graduate award study. If the existing model of professional education were to be replaced, for example, by an initial shorter qualification followed by periodic recertification, then new financing arrangements would need to be made. The professional bodies, which hitherto have largely assumed responsibility for the continuing education of their members, are also experiencing problems in financing programs with the rapid growth in demand for refresher professional education. The legal profession is unique among the professions in that its continuing education program for lawyers is heavily subsidised by bank interest on Trust Accounts. Other professions are not in this fortunate position and continuing education must be self-financing. A major problem thus resulting is that emphasis tends to be laid on those programs which are remunerative, while some of the more important areas of possible provision are neglected.

Most of the submissions from the professional associations to the Williams Inquiry concerned funding arrangements, and the Williams Report (1979) provides a lead here in advocating provision of recurrent grants for a trial period to fund non-award courses for graduates.

... The method of financing the colleges on the basis of enrolments in award courses tends to discourage the provision of non-award courses and to encourage the design of post-graduate award courses in an attempt to provide for recurrent or refresher education. There is need to adapt financial procedures to the nature of the problems of recurrent and refresher education.

The Committee recommends that for the next triennium the calculation of recurrent grants should include a realistic allowance for non-award courses, and that the role of continuing education courses financed in this manner be reviewed after a trial period by the Tertiary Education Commission and the State authorities (R6.35).

Viewing professional education as a continuum provides new challenges and opportunities for redesigning professional courses. While the tendency in the professions has been to lengthen initial education in response to

expanding roles for professionals, technological change and the knowledge explosion, a more innovative and appropriate educational response might be to shorten initial training and defer some content and skill areas to later stages of an individual's career when it is more relevant and can be better integrated into experience.

The Williams Report itself provides no new guidelines here. It briefly addresses itself to the problems of lengthening and upgrading courses, and recommends in this connection that an analysis be undertaken of the nature of professional and para-professional activities, but nowhere in the Report is there consideration of the reallocation of educational resources from initial vocational education into post-experience or mandatory continuing education.

If professional courses were based on a clear set of objectives and identification of the range of skills and competencies required for practice in that profession, it would be an easier task to examine the curriculum and possibly restructure it. Such an analysis might indicate that certain units were better learned in an internship or while the student is initially working on-the-job where he can relate it to his work situation, rather than endeavouring to extend the length of initial training by including all units with possible application to later practice. The Williams Report does make a recommendation on this issue, although it is stated more clearly in relation to the trades. Thus it recommends the establishment of a National Centre for Research and Development in TAFE which would, among other things, analyse the skills required for various occupations and the related education courses needed to produce these skills. With respect to the professions, the Committee states that the main safeguard against a needless increase in the length of courses is open enquiry and publication of a statement of what skills and qualities graduates are expected to have, and how proposed courses are expected to contribute to those objectives. It argues that analyses similar to those recommended for the trades are also needed for professional and para-professional activities, which the professional associations could be expected to provide.

Since, however, the quest for professional status is often accompanied by inclusion of more abstract subjects, and since it is often difficult to relate curriculum content to professional competencies or later performance, redesigning professional education as a lifelong process is likely to meet with resistance on both academic and professional fronts.

Continuing education, a burgeoning area of provision, has generally not been planned in any systematic way. Programs have tended to reflect new developments in knowledge and skills that recruit large numbers and produce healthy profits, or to be based on particular interests of staff, rather than on the range of needs experienced by professionals themselves. Some professionals, however, do regularly survey their members for their continuing education needs and try to plan appropriate programs. One of the problems contributing to the confusion in this area is that a range of bodies may make provision, such as educational institutions, professional bodies and commercial firms, with little or no coordination between them. In some professions, attempts have been made to set up coordinating machinery to provide a more systematic approach to continuing education.

As continuing education for professionals becomes more established and better funded, a range of approaches might ideally be reflected in a continuing education program. These include:

- . informational programs, largely to keep people up to date;
- . more elaborate training programs designed to develop skills and attitudes;
- . advanced programs providing an opportunity to reflect widely and deeply on an area of professional practice;
- . introductory programs to introduce professionals to fields new to them;
- . specialist courses in particular fields;
- . programs dealing with topics outside the profession itself, but relevant to practice, e.g., office management or accounting;
- . interdisciplinary courses, working on common problems with people from other professions;
- . special programs to explore particular client/consumer and community needs;
- . courses bringing people together for exchange of ideas, including non-professionals where appropriate;
- . courses to introduce new concepts in professional knowledge or practice;
- . development of materials for self-instruction;
- . development of films and video-tapes to be available to individuals or firms; training of people interested in developing training skills for use in in-firm and other training activities;
- . consulting services for people establishing in-firm, local or individual programs.

This provision largely reflects the continuing learning needs of professionals. The public also has a right to engage with professionals in dialogue about professional services and to contribute views of competent performance and professional quality. The Williams Report notes that "there is a public interest in ensuring that graduates acquire a broad understanding of the social implications of their professional activities, of the way in which the organization of professional services may guarantee quality of services in some circumstances rather than others, and of the influence of changes in knowledge on professional practice" (p. 459).

The diverse range of provisions for continuing education suggests that different learning modes must also be employed if continuing education is to be effective. Teaching styles adopted in initial professional

education may be inappropriate to continuing education where learners have their own sets of experience, cognitive maps and orientations. Houle (1980) identifies three major and overlapping modes of learning that might characterise professional education generally:

The mode of inquiry is the process of creating some new synthesis, idea, technique, policy, or strategy of action. Sometimes this mode is employed in a structured fashion: discussion and encounter groups, seminars, clinics, and guided experiences can be used to help people achieve new ideas or new ways of thinking, though the outcomes of the process cannot be predicted in advance. More frequently in this mode, learning is a by-product of efforts directed primarily at establishing policy, seeking consensus, working out compromises, and projecting plans. In some theories of education this mode is proposed as the basic method of learning, though the process of inquiry may sometimes include episodes of formal instruction or the establishment of recognized standards of good performance.

The mode of instruction is the process of disseminating established skills and knowledge. Those who use it tend to assume that the teacher (a person, a book, or any other source) already knows or is designed to convey everything that the student will learn. Most people think of this mode as being the only form of education, chiefly because established institutions use it so extensively in working with children and young people, including those engaged in pre-service professional education.

The mode of performance is the process of internalizing an idea or using a practice habitually, so that it becomes a fundamental part of the way in which the learner thinks about and undertakes his or her work. In pre-service professional education, the mode of performance is used chiefly in practical or clinical teaching, where it is inculcated by drill, by close supervision, and by long continued demonstration on the part of those who provide instruction. During the years of practice, the mode of performance may be fostered by formal use of other modes of learning, but may also be reinforced by rewards and punishment that require individuals and groups to maintain and improve their abilities and to avoid obsolescence.

Houle (1980) suggests that the patterns and methods of continuing education should be planned and conducted in terms of one or more of these three modes of education: inquiry, instruction, and performance.

These modes are familiar in day-to-day life, but they have not been adequately conceptualized as distinctive methods of approach to learning...

Because of the confusion of terms and frameworks, (continuing education) can be roundly condemned as a professional activity by somebody who thinks it means only formal instruction and who believes that experience is the best teacher. Such a person might warmly approve the auditing of performance in an employment institution as a basis for an improvement program and yet never think that one aspect of that program could be considered to be education. Another person could scorn a meeting based on inquiry as being merely the exploration of prejudices, not realizing that

the identification of differing viewpoints is necessary for the ultimate creation of a shared concensus, which is itself a learning gain.

...the choice is not whether continuing education (as some single form of it may be defined) should or should not exist, but rather what methods drawn from the three basic modes may best be selected or mixed to achieve that purpose (pp. 309-310).

Until recently, it was almost universally taken for granted that the acquisition of initial general or special competence, coupled with the expectations that every professional would voluntarily maintain, apply and advance his knowledge and skills throughout a lifetime, would be sufficient guarantee of continued excellence of performance. This is no longer the case and a number of professional occupations accept that there should be periodic reassessments of competence to reassure the individual professional and the people he or she serves and society in general, that a high level of performance is being maintained.

Either mandatory or voluntary recredentiailling can take place by such methods of evaluation as peer review, examinations of various sorts, or evidence of satisfactory completion of a plan of study. Practically speaking, however, where recertification and relicensure have been introduced, they have almost always required as a condition the presentation of evidence that a practitioner has participated to some extent in formally organized educational activity.

Mandatory contining education is widely accepted in terms of recredentiailling in North America and there is a commitment to it, in principle at least, by some professions in Australia. The Law Society of New South Wales is in favour of mandatory continuing legal education and it is likely that the NSW Law Reform Commission Inquiry into the Legal Profession will also recommend its introduction. The Auchmuty Report (1980) acknowledges many advantages in the idea of compulsory continuing education for teachers and while falling short of recommending its introduction, nonetheless foreshadows its eventual acceptance.

However, the introduction of mandatory continuing education for the professions, like other regulatory approaches to professional competence, is no guarantee that competence of individual professionals will be enhanced.

First, there is no general and demonstrable connection between mandatory education and professional competence. At best this is an indirect way of seeking to secure continuing professional ability, but its inaccuracy and inefficiency is suggested by the haphazardness of any fit between initial professional education and specific competence to practise in different knowledge and skill areas. If mandatory continuing education is to be effective, it requires painstaking examination of the content and process of continuing education in relation to demonstrated professional competence, so that only education where there is a demonstrated connection with competence to practise is mandatory. If this discussion were effectively widened to generate thorough analysis of skills, knowledge and attitudes currently required in any professional practice, the gains to the curriculum at initial training might be

considerable. Where there survives, after such scrutiny, a case for mandatory continuing education, then the question should be asked how and by whom this to be exercised, as well as in what content and skill areas; an unpoliced and unmediated alliance between education institutions hungry for business and professional associations which enjoy exclusive control of the right to practise tends to be an unholy one.

Thomas (1977) fears that compulsion will have the effect of reducing rather than enhancing the quality of provision by continuing educators, since the incentive of students voting with their feet is no longer there; ritualism may take the place of substance. The real problem, he suggests, lies with initial professional education and the attitudes which this and the professional associations combine to generate: "The first place to look is at the process by which individuals become professionals in the first place...The problem with the use of compulsion with no evaluation component as a too simple solution ... is that it conceals from the leadership the real state of commitment to the kind of continuing education that will in fact contribute to competence".

Illich has sustained a critique of lifelong education since the early seventies, as an extension of disabling, dependency-fostering schooling throughout life. The issue is well engaged by Rockhill (1976) in a paper on "the mystification of certification, education and professionalism" which asks: in the service of whom?

Essentially, certification rests on the simple premise that the public can be protected from poor services if only those who meet designated requirements are permitted to practise. The difficulty is that while the rhetoric is one of service to the consumer, the reality is one of furthering the interests of self-serving professionals in their drive for social status and control over an occupational field...

True, certification has had positive effects as well. Within certain parameters, the public is assured of competence. Professionals have been encouraged to upgrade themselves. New knowledge has improved the quality of service in society (p.8).

Rockhill suggests that focussing narrowly on continuing professional education loses sight of the larger problem - that of providing the public with the means whereby it can acquire the expertise essential for coping effectively with the problems. One way of doing this is to provide continuing professional education; another is to enable the public to acquire the information it needs to evaluate services or to take care of its own needs. Providing programs for organized groups is much easier than reaching the unorganized public. It is more difficult to provide programs for the laity, or the unorganized consumers of services. She concludes with an alternative proposal to mandatory continuing education:

I am suggesting the education of the intelligent consumer is one alternative to compulsory continuing education...We can educate the public to unfair practices, to their rights and to make intelligent choice. We can continue to develop alternatives to the schooling model for continuing education, and work toward

developing performance-based models for assessing competence and designing learning experiences (pp.14-15).

The issues raised in this paper caution against adopting new educational concepts and policies as slogans without carefully considering their wider implications for both the professions and society at large. The teaching profession, like many other professions, may be under pressure to adapt the education of its members if it is to survive. But it is important to be realistic about whether the proposed changes will have the results desired, whether there is in fact any consensus about what these 'desired results' might be, and what the nature of resistance may be to bringing about reforms. While recurrent education may represent too radical a strategy for the professions, even an acceptable low-key concept such as lifelong professional education carries seeds for reform that might 'get in under the guard' of the professions in similar ways.

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RECURRENT EDUCATION NEEDS ARISING FROM CHANGES IN PARENT,
COMMUNITY AND EMPLOYER LINKS WITH SCHOOLS

David Pettit

INTRODUCTION

During the last decade it has become clear that schooling will not be able to remain aloof from the turbulence and uncertainty that accompanies society in a state of change. All schools are facing pressures for change, but not all display the same degree of adaptability. Clearly, changes in schooling must take place in schools; but if schools are unable to adapt, schooling may be circumvented in much the way that the deformalists of the sixties predicted.

Although teachers are predominantly preoccupied with the practice of pedagogy, others are mainly concerned with how that process and its outcomes intermesh with their priorities and influence their aspirations. Hence the provision of education is now mainstream politics for two reasons. First, over the last two decades schools have clearly continued to discriminate against some children and failed to meet the personal and public expectations of many people. Second, changing patterns of employment brought about by technological change are undermining the certification - career nexus upon which the status of schooling has rested:

Why after all should they (students) strive when their elder brothers or sisters who have managed to obtain these nice pieces of paper employers seem to crave were still without a job?¹

The result has been a falling confidence in schools at the same time as there is an expectation, reflected in numerous reports, that schools should be able to solve the social dislocation that change brings. This has directly influenced the general status and individual self-esteem of teachers. Many are critically aware of the present shortcomings of schools and, while defending the profession, acknowledge the need for change. Thus the forces at work for the renewal of schools are both internal and external.

In this paper I shall argue that over the last decade there has been a mounting pressure upon schools to improve and expand their links with parents, the community and employers. This pressure poses a challenge to the traditional activities and role expectations of many teachers, their knowledge and skills - pedagogic and social - and their individual philosophies.

An examination of the need for recurrent education in this area is therefore also a study of forces for change and means of accommodating such changes in schools.

SOME CONCEPTS INVOLVED

In the context of this paper, 'links' take the form of either 'involvement' (i.e. any form of information giving and receiving, consultations or helping by individuals where the final prerogative to decide belongs to another individual or group) or 'participation', in which individuals or groups share the decisions. There is naturally no hard and fast line between these two definitions: involvement grades into partial participation, where people can and do influence the outcome but the prerogative still clearly belongs to one party, and into full participation.²

Of the three groups of links to schools, only 'community' is ambiguous. 'Community' is used here to mean the association of people with similar, somewhat specific interests and concerns, although it may also be used in the sense of the 'school community' of students, parents and teachers.³

The school is viewed as a social system, a series of interlocking social positions, in what is a relatively complex organisation with fairly fluid 'boundaries'. In their interaction with their communities - communities plural, since their 'outside' associations will vary according to the issue at hand - differing perceptions of boundary will be experienced by the incumbents of various positions within the social system. Boundaries may be drawn very widely and include a variety of vested interests which can legitimately expect to influence the school.⁴ This brings into the limelight the issue of power in and over schools.

THE WELLSPRINGS OF LINKING NEEDS

Changes in parent, community and employer links with schools are important since they are influencing the roles of teachers and administrators, their tasks and activities.

Of the reasons put forward to justify closer links between school and community, two in particular - the pedagogic and the political - have a direct impact upon the traditional role perceptions of teachers; others have less. The pedagogic category includes all forms of interaction to increase the effectiveness of learning experiences by students and to create relevance in schooling, of which relations with the world of work is an important aspect. The political category concerns structures for devolved responsibility and issues associated with community development. Both have direct implications upon the role of teachers and for the provision of recurrent education.

(a) Learning effectiveness. The basic objective which underpins moves to involve the community in the school and vice-versa is to create conditions for the optimum educational development of all children. To create these conditions the school has to be seen as relevant and effective by the child and the parents and members of the immediate community who largely determine the child's attitudes and values. The major influence in the child's continuing development is the family.⁵ It is the first and continuing influence right through to, and often beyond, adolescence. Through its ability to influence the child's attitudes towards school it can to a large extent determine whether a child accepts or rejects the values promoted by the school.⁶

Schools which seek to play a significant role in a child's education have to recognise the impact of family and other environmental influences on the child. This is a child-centred, learner-oriented approach to teaching. It implies the need for schools to be aware of and associated with those facets of local life and culture which directly influence their effectiveness.

The empirical evidence in this field mainly links home background and educational progress in terms of standardised tests for intelligence and attainment and public examinations.⁷ There is less evidence of the socio-emotional consequences of the monoculturalism of schools, a perspective more usually adopted by those concerned with behavioural problems. Some recent publications have explored this interface between welfare, social work and schools.⁸

In Australia the close association between home background and school achievement, never as tightly researched as overseas, has been given particular prominence by the practical difficulties facing teachers in schools with large ethnic populations and disadvantaged working class students. The pedagogic response has been the development of various forms of specialist expertise to deal with 'the problem' and needs-based resourcing through such programs as the Schools Commission's Disadvantaged School's Program and the federal migrant education programs. The Schools Commission in particular has adopted a more virulent strain of the 'Plowden ideology'⁹ and strongly encouraged the representation in both planning and process of parents as a necessary prerequisite for different strategies to increase local community influence upon schools.

The Commission's thesis that teachers might need to undertake a radical reassessment of their philosophy and practice bore two theses: in moving a teacher towards a client oriented approach it emphasised learning needs above teaching priorities for predetermined objectives, and also implied that the values held by migrant and working class families, different from those of the teachers, would have to be respected if the teacher was to be able to facilitate effective learning. In a further broadening of the role dimension of teachers it has been advocated that a collaborative approach should be adopted between schools and social work agencies to ameliorate home conditions which have an adverse impact upon the child's ability to learn.¹⁰

In this approach to teaching and learning the role of the parents is vital. It is they who, as agents of the children, with the children themselves translate their environment to the teachers because "the teachers, unless they live there and are part of the neighbourhood, do not have the understanding and insight necessary to build a relevant learning experience for the children of their own."¹¹

Further it goes beyond the Plowden proposals for the role of parents,¹² characterised as "'cooperation' (which) appears to mean persuading parents to accept the view of teachers",¹³ to their direct involvement in the school curriculum, particularly in the child's early years. It places a totally different emphasis upon teacher skills:

(It) does not undervalue the role of the teacher but requires of them different skills, especially collaborative planning skills

including listening to, respecting and understanding different life-styles, values and sub-cultures. In fact it significantly increases the decision-making responsibility of the teacher to include curriculum development, implementation and evaluation. (A) centralised model has only allowed teachers control over implementation in the past.¹⁴

Those who oppose parent involvement for the purpose of educational improvement would argue that although many schools have had parents closely involved over long periods it is impossible to prove that increased interaction leads to measurable improvements in terms of the data of standardised tests and cognitive achievements.¹⁵

(b) Relevance. It is not only for sub-cultures that the relevance of learning experiences offered to young people has been questioned. Two decades ago the strident criticisms of the radical reformers attacked the isolation, artificiality and irrelevance of schooling. The response by schools has varied from total disregard to total reappraisal. The system response has leaned towards variants of school-based curriculum.

The importance for recurrent education lies in the extent to which changes fell into the mould of either palace or public revolutions. Most palace revolutions took the form of integrated subjects, general studies, the use of local resources and field experiences few of which, if any, impinged at all upon the professional role perception of the teachers. Other forms of experiential learning, especially work experience, have. (It should also be remarked that it is equally possible to fit work experience programs into school programs with only marginal challenge to the teacher's role.)¹⁶

Employers as a whole appear to have little direct impact upon schools except inasmuch as they indirectly affect the views of parents, who may try to influence the school.¹⁷

Teachers and employers appear largely ignorant of each other's domains. Yet both face new sets of problems while hampered by rigid structures and limited techniques. Consequently most people leave school with little or no understanding of the world of work, the kinds of jobs available and the nature of work involved.¹⁸

One project which has attempted to set work experience in a course of academic study is the Victorian structured entry-to-career project. Its major aim is to follow an experiential approach to learning. Basic to the scheme is the belief that structured experience in the workplace - whether commercial, industrial or community - can be a useful way for young people to gain a range of intellectual, social and practical skills.¹⁹

The pressures upon the teachers responsible for negotiating the scheme can be considerable. They suffer all the insecurity of the go-between bridging two worlds - school and work, both of which consider theirs the 'real world'. They have constantly to negotiate the conditions that give the program status and effectiveness from an unaccustomed position of supplianee. To work effectively with the hierarchies of the firms and the unions requires a high level of adult interpersonal skills,

management and manipulative, to arrange the conditions for successful experiences at the shop floor level.²⁰

The values and skills demanded of teachers working with industry are similar to those required to collaborate with parents: so too are the processes and structures used, both internally and externally.

(c) Devolution of Responsibility. The basic objective of forging links between the school and the community is to improve the effectiveness of schools for children. However, excessive centralism and hierarchical structures have made it difficult for state systems of education to help local schools in their attempts to respond to the cultural pluralism of Australian society. There are signs in some states of moves away from extreme centralism towards a more flexible, local basis for making educational decisions. This move towards devolution has been supported by groups at both ends of the political spectrum but for different reasons. The conservatives have supported it as 'regionalisation', an attempt at legitimisation of government by the devolution of some administrative responsibility to more sensitive and accessible levels at the region. More radical elements have supported it as part of their attempts to gain greater local control and more participative decision making in those areas of life for which governments are responsible. The grassroots control of schools is a fundamentally different proposition from administrative devolution to regional directors or inspectors still responsible only to the head office and with no formal local accountability. The former lessens teacher autonomy and makes greater demands on teachers for their participation with others in shared decision making: it involves local accountability for some issues to legally constituted local school boards or councils. The latter maintains existing hierarchical administrative structures and encourages compliance to central administrative demands and rewards.

The existence in some states of school councils or boards with responsibility for finance, the giving of advice on educational policy and the curriculum can be seen as a threat to the kernel of the professional preserve, the curriculum. The sensitivity of both principal and teachers to this ²¹ and to other, more general, changes in school council and parent expectations, is reflected in the recommendation of the School Councils Research Project in Victoria that it be made clear to teachers and principals

that a change has occurred in the context of their professional responsibilities ...(to) include the responsibility to inform and communicate with all parents concerning the likely or possible implications for their children's futures of the courses and programs run by the school, and to relate back to staff and school council the wishes of as many parents as possible.²²

(d) Community Development. Some of those who are in favour of more open schools for both pedagogic and political reasons have taken their arguments a stage further to promote schools, the most commonly provided public institutions, as agents of community regeneration. This move towards a *gemeinschaft* role appeared in the submission of the Australian Council of State School Organisations (ACSSO) to the Interim Committee of the Schools Commission and had some impact. It has its strong proponents

in some disadvantaged areas where the interaction of all forms of social, economic and health deprivation are most obvious. Such an approach would involve the school in problems of critical concern to its neighbourhood: employment, welfare, leisure and development. It 'uses' the educators to help people create for themselves rather than looking to them for leadership. It has been infrequently attempted because of the radical role reorientation it demands of teachers.²³

A more common approach has been the safer, more conformist function, adopted in Victoria in particular, of community education. This is essentially the use of schools as centres for recreational and leisure activities, often associated with community service, without in any way impinging on the traditional functions of the school and roles of teachers. In fact research indicates that the two can be totally independent of one another even when sharing the same resources: no involvement of the community in decisions related to the school need take place.²⁴ Its rationale is economic - the maximum utilisation of publicly provided resources - and its tenor is mainly conservative.

Summary. Moves for greater interaction between the school and the community had their origins in political instability, in proposals for radical reform based on research and in raised public expectations of schools. They are mainly set in the context of popular concern about the anomie and impersonality of mass society and the unresponsiveness of government institutions.

THE RESPONSE OF SCHOOLS AND THE TEACHER'S ROLE

In most schools the need for links and the general issues of community involvement and school-based decision making appear to have been much discussed, even if little has been done. Some schools have gone further by linking their actions to the rationales described above and initiating school-based programs. In a few schools there is evidence of the links strengthening to some shared decision-making which is now coming up against institutional blockages of legal, financial and industrial natures.²⁵

For a host of reasons - personal, bureaucratic, legal and industrial - moves towards closer links have been uneven. In only two states (Victoria and South Australia) and the two Territories does the legislation exist which devolves some responsibility formally to the school level. All have opportunities for teacher participation. In many places, vested interests are resisting such moves for reasons that are worth considering.

Schools are set in the context of massive bureaucracies, state and Catholic. The primary function of bureaucracies, at the administrative or school level is to preserve their power. System-level administrators have long attempted to 'show' that reform is an administrative problem. So-called objective procedures - systems analysis, budget planning, manpower strategies, curriculum planning - performed by central experts tends to dissociate system administrators from human purposes and local issues. Depoliticization is sought to blunt conflict and change and to maintain the power of the centre.

Schools, too, are complex bureaucratic organisations. As such they fit neatly into Crozier's characterisation of a bureaucracy as an "organisation that cannot correct its behaviour by learning from its errors".²⁶ Their conservatism derives from the administrative hierarchies within which schools are set, the role expectations of teachers and the public's expectations. Vertical channels of accountability appear to encourage passive conformity and lack of critical leadership. It is more important not to rock the boat than to attempt imaginative but perhaps controversial change.²⁷ In the pre-service experience of teachers as students and student-teachers, little appears to occur that challenges the traditional academic/instrumental priorities that they attach to their role. Once teaching, they are likely to become drilled into myopia by the organisational imperatives of classroom management and the socialisation of the staff-room. Those who successfully innovate may have to face, unsupported, public counter attack of the Committee Against Regressive Education (CARE) and the Society to Outlaw Pornography (STOP) variety and the less vitriolic but nevertheless demanding enquiries of parents unaccustomed to new strategies.

As a consequence the profession has cultivated an ability to defuse pressures for change with some ill-will and minor indigestion. A slight adjustment of the curriculum takes place, a little tinkering with structures but with only marginal change to roles and functions. While account may be taken of local views, systems expertise is used to channel them into goals set by the 'experts'. The so-called reforms serve only to repair and maintain the existing institution under a guise of change. For example, little attitudinal change towards children takes place: children are perceived as a major constraint upon teachers achieving professional developed goals. Table 1, extracted from a consultative investigation into sixteen primary schools in east suburban Melbourne, indicates clearly that this view exists in some, not all, of the schools. (Only two of the schools receive Schools Commission disadvantaged schools funds.)

TABLE 1
TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS OF MAJOR CONSTRAINTS UPON ACHIEVING THEIR AIMS

(% of the school's staff)

School	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M	N	O	P
Child's Abilities:	46	40	37	0	40	50	16	11	47	-	60	70	33	33	45	60
Child's Attitudes:	53	40	75	7	40	66	16	15	33	31	50	50	58	58	60	-
Child's Home:	80	30	81	7	60	42	16	30	47	62	60	30	75	91	75	40

When a large number of teachers see the children's attitudes, abilities and home backgrounds as a major constraint upon their achieving their teaching objectives, it is the role perception and the teaching processes that need challenging, not the children and their backgrounds.

To expand upon the above perceptions, the teachers of one school in interview identified the following home environment constraints (quoted verbatim):

- i) Parents find it difficult to devote enough time to their children. Reasons: both parents work, single parent families, parents' own education.
- ii) Parental guidance. A lack of consistent discipline and meaningful communication (to teachers) about the standards of children's behaviour and attitudes.
- iii) Parents need to express interest and encouragement of child's accomplishments.
- iv) Parents need to make provision for intellectual growth by providing a favourable environment, e.g., books.
- v) Parents need to make use of external resources by providing a rich variety of experiences to facilitate learning, e.g., visits to interesting places.

For teachers to move towards a more child-centred, sensitive service approach that incorporates extensive parent involvement, negotiation with industry and lay participation in school governance is thus a task which holds radical implications for the role of teachers, a point worth pursuing.

Role is a two-way concept. It includes the set of values and expectations of people in social systems from their own viewpoint and the viewpoint of those with whom they interact.²⁸ Those who have been associated with traditional schools whether as principals, teachers, parents or students have roles organised around the functions they fulfill. They rarely have aspirations to change their own expectations or those that others hold for them.²⁹ The most likely reaction of teachers to forces for change brought to bear on them is one of maintenance behaviour - dynamic conservation - unless the changes can be shown to bring different or improved rewards. Thus any intervention strategies that attempt to change a teacher's role perception from that of a technically-oriented, specialist "expert-provider" to that of a more open, process-oriented "sensitive service" approach must have regard to rewards. Since these are unlikely to be financial they must be in terms of work satisfaction.

There are indications that both administrators and teachers are recognising the need for greater interaction with the community for a variety of reasons, discussed above, and with a variety of emphases. Several factors appear to have brought about the change.³⁰

The conditions under which Schools Commission Disadvantaged Schools grants are made to schools appear to have had a strong impact. The need for proposal committees to include parent/community members in discussion of the availability of extra resources to facilitate interaction has brought about changed attitudes. So, too, in some states has the creation and expansion of school boards/councils with delegated powers.

In other cases the impact on school-home relationships of innovative and charismatic principals and teachers has been particularly significant. In the secondary area there is increasing evidence of schools and subject associations liaising with industry. Government initiatives are reforming Technical and Further Education and programs for school-work transition. All imply the need for opportunities to reconsider and reshape school policies, curriculum, processes and structures, but recurrent education activities have mainly taken the form of inservice functions of relatively short-term duration in which the exchange of peer group experience has been important.

At this stage it is probably apposite to reiterate that the impact of recurrent education will be greatest where the recipients have acknowledged a need for it. The principal can be important in this. He, or she, has the opportunity to promote a collaborative approach to decision making within the school and the establishment of structures to make it possible. Collaboration appears to be the best avenue to teacher support and development and the non-judgemental atmosphere best suited to attitudinal and structural change. These conditions appear most likely to give rise to an awareness amongst all participants - administrators and teachers - of the need to improve and expand knowledge and skills through recurrent education. Other influential people - co-ordinators, senior teachers and opinion leaders - can have a similar impact.

There is, however, a danger in basing recurrent education in the school without outside intervention strategies. The survey of eastern suburban primary schools, referred to above, found that the four major influences upon what and how teachers taught in their classrooms and upon the school in general were their colleagues, the principal, the deputy principal and the staff meeting. (Children had a strong impact upon classroom activities). This incestuousness, unreferenced to outside influences, can obviously lead to dysfunction with outside communities. Yet as the following table indicates (Table 2), it is inservice education determined in the school or using short, one or two day releases, which has a greater perceived impact upon changing practice than other influences, with the exception of the District Inspector.

TABLE 2
INFLUENCE OF INSERVICE ON WHAT IS TAUGHT IN THE SCHOOL
AND IN THE CLASSROOM
(5-point scale)

School	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M	N	O	P
Inservice origin																
The school	3.0	2.5	2.8	3.1	2.4	3.0	3.3	2.3	-	3.0	2.5	2.8	2.3	3.0	2.8	2.6
The/my classroom	3.0	2.8	3.5	3.6	2.9	3.5	3.0	2.5	-	2.5	2.9	3.0	2.4	3.3	3.4	2.5

To complete the picture, it is worth pointing out that the influence of colleges and universities, where several teachers were doing upgrading courses, was rated at 1.8 on average. Other bodies such as A.C.E.R., E.R.D.C. and the Schools Commission were rated at 1.4.

SUGGESTIONS FOR AIMS, OBJECTIVES AND PROCESSES TO MEET RECURRENT EDUCATIONAL NEEDS ARISING FROM CHANGES IN LINKS WITH PARENTS, EMPLOYERS AND THE COMMUNITY

(i) General. The priority accorded to this aspect of recurrent education will not only reflect the perceived needs of the individual client or the corporate policy of the school or the policies of the provider of the service. It will strongly reflect ascendant and dominant educational, political and economic philosophies and policies. Initiatives to encourage school-community interaction take place with educational philosophies which believe schools should respect the cultures of the students and equip them to understand and shape society. They accept that the confidence and competence of parents and their involvement are a necessary part of this. Politically it implies the acceptance of a degree of local autonomy in school governance under the umbrella of ministerial responsibility. Local structures are used for allocating some resources according to local priorities through a process of negotiation between teachers, parents and citizens and, where appropriate, students. The setting is important. Interaction would be given a very low priority, and so too would the needs for recurrent education, in a highly centralised administrative system responsible for devising curriculum, implementing it through a system of rigid regulation and regimented evaluation as part of a systemic process in which the selective function of schooling is paramount.

(ii) Client priorities and attitudes towards recurrent education.³¹ The prime task of teachers is to facilitate the transfer of knowledge and skills to their students. Those who are not successful, or only partially successful, are unlikely to have the confidence to establish links that threaten to expose this by questioning the appropriateness of their activities. As has been previously stated, recurrent education in this field is unlikely to rank highly in teachers' priorities unless external motivational factors intervene. Some more experienced and/or successful teachers are more interested in the effect of environmental factors upon their teaching effectiveness than in the creation or development of links. Others become interested if their schools have policies and practices that encourage interaction. Negative experiences - conflict and hostility - may also have an influence.

There is evidence that recurrent education ranks highly for school administrators and teachers with administrative responsibilities.

There is a marked reluctance by administrators and teachers to take part in recurrent education unless it is part of up-grading necessary for continued employment (maintenance behaviour) or for promotion (motivational behaviour). For many, recurrent education is seen as a natural but unwelcome addition to the certification hurdles stretching back to their own school days and undertaken as yet another academic exercise. It is a chore that interrupts their teaching, leisure, family obligations, etc.

Some lay people also wish to engage in forms of recurrent education which relate to special tasks they perform or to their general interests in children or schooling.

(iii) Present provision of recurrent education. Recurrent education falls into three main categories - certificated upgrading courses run at tertiary institutions; medium term courses run by special institutions for management e.g. Institute of Educational Administration; and short to medium term teacher inservice operations mainly provided by state education systems but also run by and including special interest groups, e.g. teacher unions and parent organisations.

(iv) Overall Aims. Recurrent education should encourage teachers to return to fundamentals - to reassess their attitudes, values, style of teaching, etc., and give them scope to grow and develop. It should build on the teachers' knowledge and skills accumulated from previous training and experience. The overall aim should be to produce as practioners people who accept the need to understand their community and their school, develop ways of relating the two and be able to play an active part in establishing, maintaining and expanding links. This involves role-related changes, both pedagogic and technological.

(v) Objectives. Any program of recurrent education for teachers would need to incorporate in it the development of

- a. interpersonal skills for communicating with a wide range of people from different socio-economic and cultural groups;
- b. analytical skills and an understanding of conceptual frameworks used to facilitate an appreciation of the school community and of the wider community in which the school is set;
- c. utilization of a. and b. above for the benefit of the students;
- d. the ability to assess social problems whether they arise in the school or stem from the family and to identify the agencies most appropriate to assist, and make referrals to and cooperate with them;
- e. participative planning skills and the ability to develop appropriate processes and structures to facilitate a. to d. above;
- f. a heightened sense of personal and group confidence and competence in all those who are linked with the school; and
- g. concepts to assist in the understanding of the inter-relationship between technological and social change and its impact upon schools.

While all the objectives above are valuable for facilitating interaction, relationships with parents, the use of appropriate structures and the ability to work in and know the local community are particularly important.

Teachers need to be able to talk with parents in a variety of settings, some of which may not be particularly congenial. Parents can be expected

to come from very diverse backgrounds. Some may require support, interpretation services and the like for them to understand educational and institutional practices and the ways in which they can educate their own children, help in school and become involved in programs. Others will, with support, be able to take on leadership roles. The teacher will need to be able to work with parents to modify the school so that it works for the students and other groups in the community. This requires general interactive skills, interpretive and counselling skills and the ability to analyse the barriers that exist to such processes, both formal and informal.³² Such an extension and reorientation of the teacher's role to include greater interaction with others will increase the need for group skills and the use of formal and informal structures.

Teachers' experiences of structures are generally restricted. Most of their experiences are with internal structures - staff, union branch or subject associations, year level or pastoral groups. Of the external structures infrequently used to connect them to parents - reports, form nights, speech days, etc. - they are, most usually, unskilled users.³³

Increased devolution places greater emphasis on structures. For example, the extension of school council powers in Victoria resulted in the creation of formal management structures and sub-structures with extensive teacher representation.³⁴ Inter-school and school-agency cooperation through 'clusters' or 'groups' also engages teachers in structures of which their prior experience is limited and over which they have no greater control than the other participants. Experience in Victoria demonstrates the stress that such experiences can bring³⁵ and the need for skills to cope with them.

School staffs, co-operatively, have to take stock of 'their' community before relationships can be established or fully developed with parents, business, community services, and educational, recreational or other groups. There are many things the staff needs to find out such as community values, structures, associations, influential people, etc. A useful way to obtain this is to engage systematically in an analysis in the field of the critical features of the school's community.³⁶ Another approach is to develop a community services index or carry out a community needs assessment.³⁷ The priority will depend upon the most pressing need. There are, through investigative research,³⁸ a variety of ways of monitoring or gathering information. Each has advantages and disadvantages which are well documented and not referred to here.

(vi) Community-based education. Recurrent education can occur in a range of places - schools, shops, offices, agencies, industry - and through a range of experiences as long as the conceptual format is clear. For this reason it would appear appropriate to use bases in the community, for example, education centres, teachers centres or offices rather than tertiary institutions for short or medium term courses. Similarly, it is crucially important that a group of people with varying backgrounds works on the development of any course and is involved in it with teachers acting as consultants and participants.³⁹

SUMMARY

Schools have varied and often complex links with a range of people for different purposes. These links are encouraged by the existence of formal policies and structures: the converse is also true. There is internal and external pressure upon schools to improve their links and, coincidentally, to extend their boundaries. The response to this from the professionals is uneven. So, too, is the motivation to undergo appropriate recurrent education, given the existence of other priorities, professional and non-professional. Related to this response is the persistence of strongly embedded role perceptions, the time-scale needed for attitudinal change and the varying opportunities available for implementing alternative strategies.

There are skills and knowledge which are desirable for improving links between the school and its own community and the wider community. The different positions occupied by professionals in schools and the processes and structures of internal decision making are largely responsible for determining their roles. Those roles and related links will determine the particular knowledge and skills the professionals see as relevant to their needs and consequently the need to engage in recurrent education. Pressures which exist to expand links are also likely to have spin-offs beyond the immediate 'technology' of linking. Thus change is most likely to occur in basic areas such as curriculum and organisation, and this will create its own demand for recurrent education.

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TEACHER PARTICIPATION: LEARNING ON THE JOB

Glen Evans

INTRODUCTION

One of the most interesting sections of the Report of the National Inquiry into Teacher Education (NITE Report, 1970) is concerned with the way the teacher's role develops with experience. One of the key features in that development is the increasing involvement of the teacher in decision making in such areas as school curriculum development, communication with various audiences, program management and grouping, individualization of instruction, diagnosis of learning difficulties, and development of special materials.

While the suggestions of the NITE Committee may need further discussion, research, and modification, it is to be hoped that one important aspect will be preserved: it is that the teacher's basic teaching role and his role in school decision making are not separated. Rather the second is expressed both as an expansion of the first and as a necessary matrix for classroom teaching.

The NITE Report recognizes that the context of the teacher's work is an important influence on his or her actions. What it does not state is that attempts at teacher development in a context that does not also change are likely to be, at best, unrewarding, and, at worst, frustrating and disruptive. In the same way, attempts at curriculum change in the absence of both organisational development and teacher development are likely to lead to adoption but to no real implementation. This paper attempts to analyse the relationships between post-experience teacher education, school-based decision making, particularly in curriculum development, and organisational development of the school.

THE RATIONALE OF EXTENDED TEACHER PARTICIPATION

The extension of the teacher's role in decision making is a natural outcome of the trend to localization of educational decision making and the devolution of power from the centre (e.g. Schools in Australia, 1973; Department of Education and Science, U.K., 1977; Schools Commission, 1978; Victorian Education Department, 1980). Much of the argument relating to decentralization extends beyond the role of teachers. It is also concerned with community participation in schooling (e.g. Schools in Australia, 1973; Jones, 1974; Henry, 1976; Walker, 1976; Randell, 1976; Department of Education and Science (U.K.), 1977; Schools Commission, 1978). The reasons advanced for increased community involvement usually revolved around an extra input from parents and local community members, which is seen as supplementing the directions of schooling dictated by the broader society (Schools Commission, 1978; Mason, 1979; Victorian Education Department, 1980). This view was expressed for example as follows:

Schools have much to gain from the involvement of the community in educational programs... the openness of a school to parents is a

means of extending its educational influence and reinforcing pupil motivation; and the obligation of our teachers to explain to parents procedures developed through expert knowledge can only benefit all concerned.

(Schools in Australia, 1973, pp. 13-14).

Despite the above extract from the Karmel Report and subsequent studies and statements, obtaining community involvement is not easy, though successful attempts are reported by the School and Community Project (1977 to 1980). Various reports (e.g. Evans and Cotterell, 1976; Vacchini, 1977; Campbell and Robinson, 1979) indicate the little real influence which the community has on the work of most teachers. Edgar (1980) makes the point that the varied groups in the wider community have special interests which range across geographical localities. Edgar argues for satisfying the differing needs of disparate groups in the wider community. "Some groups do not want to participate, but they might in certain things if we went out and invited comments, and showed them how they could" (p. 62).

Thus one of the important reasons for and one of the important tasks of school-based decision making is to help involve the community meaningfully, not only by representation on councils, but through detailed discussions with groups and parents who may have widely divergent interests. This may involve interschool co-operation as well as within-school development.

A second argument for school-based decision making and teacher participation has to do with individualization of teaching so as to meet the needs of the particular students in the school. The evidence is that how children are taught in schools is still very much in the hands of the classroom teacher. Further, actual classroom styles seem resistant to change, as far as the majority of teachers are concerned (e.g. Hoetker and Ahlbranc, 1969; Westbury, 1973), in spite of many different types of classroom organization. This and the arguments of Charters and Jones (1973), for example, suggest that any real innovation in schooling needs to take place at the school level in a way which gains the commitment of administration, teams of teachers, and individual teachers to it and in a way which also redirects priorities in time and resources. Participation in decision making is often seen as a way of inducing this commitment.

A third argument for localization has to do with minimizing errors. Local decision making, properly carried out, may simply lead to a better fit to needs and a faster response to errors than the more cumbersome machinery of central authority. It is easier for a single school to change text books, resource materials, organization, and the like than for a whole system to respond.

If schools are to cater for community needs and individual student needs, and be responsive to change, they must do so in a way which takes note of a number of difficulties and constraints.

First, the tasks for schools and the demands on school organization will be made very much more complex by increased local decision making. Boyd (1978), in writing of American education, refers to the tensions between pressures for cultural homogeneity and those for cultural diversity, and

between social maintenance and social change. School-based decision making in Australia is likely to localize these tensions in the work of the school more explicitly than has ever previously been the case. There is also the natural frustration of participants as they strive for a balance between representation and participation, leadership, and technical expertise. The three may not necessarily be found at the same level of excellence in the same institution.

Second, as previously noted, localization does not necessarily guarantee that the needs of minority groups are met, or even that majority views are attended to. The SEMP (Social Educational Materials Program) controversy in Queensland illustrates this possibility even on a state wide scale.

Third, there is the question of mobility. If students transferring between schools encounter widely different curricula, might not that be disadvantaging?

Fourth, there are limited resources for education. School-based decision making will need to be conducted within the constraints of a fair, reasonable, and efficient distribution of resources. Edgar (1980), for example, strongly criticises the idea of a separate school and argues rather for sharing area wide planning, implying networks of schools and local resources.

Fifth, while more local decision making might encourage diversity of programs, it could just as easily lead to conservative responses, if only for want of new ideas.

These aspirations and constraints imply a number of tasks for school staffs. They can be summarized as follows:

- (i) Consultation and co-operation with parents and the community generally in developing school aims and curricular goals.
- (ii) Interpreting the guidelines of central curriculum authorities to the school community and providing feedback to the central authority on the community's views and needs.
- (iii) Using the goals and guidelines to plan, develop and evaluate curriculum activities within the school.
- (iv) Providing for the needs of particular students and groups of students. This may mean the development not only of local variations on common curriculum guidelines, but also providing for differential curriculum opportunities within the school. It also entails setting the limits and conditions of parent and student participation in school decision making.
- (v) Co-operation with other schools, at least at a regional level, to share ideas and resources, and to ensure some comparability of experiences and standards to cater for an increasingly mobile society.

- (vi) Arrangements for ensuring continued input of professional information into the school and continuing professional development of staff.
- (vii) Participation in professional activities beyond the school, e.g. teacher associations, curriculum development projects, and formal and informal teacher development programs.

These expanded professional activities would have little reason for being if they did not set the scene for, and improve, the basic functions of teaching, and some attention must be given here to the actual process of teaching, where again role definition has become progressively less clear. Central to most teachers' concerns is effective control over the transaction of knowledge (e.g. Sharp and Green, 1975). The basis for achieving this is frequently seen as effective classroom control. While teachers may ideally wish for a larger measure of student choice (e.g. Evans, 1979), the extent to which this actually occurs is low, although the exceptions are interesting and well known (e.g. Musgrave and Selleck, 1975). Overlaying these concerns is the question of assessment. One of the primary purposes of assessment still appears to be classification of students with a view to future selection (e.g. Queensland Board of Secondary School Studies, 1978, p. 40). Gordon (1978) summarizes these concerns by describing the traditional role of teaching as that of instructor, socializer, and classifier.

To a large extent these traditional roles are built into the organizations of schools and educational systems. Perhaps as a consequence, new demands for teachers to take a more extended part in pastoral care of the students, for example, may run counter to environmental pressures. Even within the instructional role, as Williams (1980) has demonstrated, there may be severely conflicting messages within an educational system, and consequent role conflict on the part of teachers. One important aspect of school-based decision making should be the clarification of role expectations. (See, for example, Richardson, 1973).

The reluctance of teachers to discuss classroom problems with other teachers is not well documented, but there are hints of it. The studies by Evans (1979), Cohen and Harrison (1978) and Perrott (1979) suggest that teachers tend to "go it alone" and that the influence of inservice education, inspectors and other consultants, publications, and even principals, on their teaching activities is minimal. Even other teachers, with the notable exception of subject masters, have less influence than might be expected. School organizational systems and procedures need to be found which have the following effects:

- (i) to help the teacher view problems of learning and behaviour as professional problems to be solved rather than as indices of his or her own failings. There are indications that the team approach encouraged by open area designs can achieve this.
- (ii) to help teachers more openly discuss such problems with each other as shared responsibilities of the group.

- (iii) to help teachers seek more widely in the home and community for help in solving problems presented by individual students.
- (iv) to provide a better interface between recurrent education and other support services and teachers' real problems in teaching.

Goals of this kind cannot be met by providing more recurrent education only. The evidence is that such a route is unlikely to succeed, no matter how pertinent the content of the inservice work, unless, in addition, certain structural conditions are met.

The effective conditions for success of inservice programs were neatly summarized by Batten (1979) after an extensive review and evaluation of the Schools Commission's Development Program. Most pertinent to the present review are her remarks on school-centred professional development.

The Commission, development committees, teachers, administrators, parents, consultants, teacher centre personnel - all these people have expressed strong support for the idea and the reality of school-centred development work. The reason may be that it incorporates so many of the factors which have been important contributors to effective in-service education within the Program. The school-centred element favours active participant involvement and in-service continuity; it presents an opportunity to benefit from peer group interactions and influence; and it provides an answer to the perpetual cry from teachers that in-service work should be directly relevant to their work in the classroom.

(Batten, 1979, pp. 287-288).

Batten's analysis could be extended even further to posit an identity between many instances of school-based curriculum and organizational development, that is, attempts by the staff of a school to solve the legitimate problems of the school, and inservice education itself. Such a situation would considerably sharpen the idea of learning from experience. It would also foster the kind of meaning of the term "experienced teacher" sought in the NITE Report. The residual question then becomes: what are the appropriate support services and other teacher education services needed to assist in the task? Before proceeding to that question, however, the next section is used to attempt to assess how some of the roles of teachers described above are actually being performed.

THE RESPONSE OF SCHOOL SYSTEMS AND SCHOOLS TO PRESSURES FOR TEACHER PARTICIPATION

Community Involvement. Mapping the teacher's ideal role from the value position of local decision making or role consistency is a useful way to generate possibilities for inservice education. However, there is no guarantee that the demands, encouragements, and discouragements which teachers actually experience follow the theoretical pattern. In this section an attempt is made to survey some of these expectations and the extent to which teacher participation of the kinds mentioned in the last section is actually a fact in Australian Schools.

At the broadest level the tasks of schooling are set by the society at large, or at least educational authorities who are presumed to reflect the views of society. Twelve research studies of varying levels of comprehensiveness have recently been exactly analysed and reviewed by Mason (1979), whose analysis of methodological weaknesses in the studies prompted her to say: "We do not yet know whether the major findings in research of community expectations of education result from the way in which the research has been conducted or are a true reflection of the views of various community groups" (p 35).

A more recent study by Campbell and Robinson (1979) may have overcome some of Mason's objections. It used a national sample of 1567 people drawn from six states with subsamples for teachers, students, parents, businessmen, and unionists, with an overall response rate of 72 percent. The items were based initially on a review of letters to newspapers, feature articles in education, and media reports. They were divided into functions of schooling, teacher's role in decision making, curriculum development, knowledge which the schools should develop, how values should be handled, motivation of students, and fostering of learning. A number of such items were piloted, using a sample of people likely to reflect a wide range of viewpoints, and 60 items finally developed. Moreover, these items represented a range of educational orientations which have empirical, theoretical, and historical validity. Finally, in the main study, the analysis was based on proportions of people who actually endorsed items (agree or strongly agree) rather than on mean ratings.

Some of Campbell and Robinson's findings are of special importance for the present review. On the question of teachers' role in decision making, their data indicate generally positive consensus among all groups in all states that "the primary role of professional educators in the authority structure is to convert broad curriculum guidelines, determined by widely representative committees, into specific learning experiences." There was less agreement on their working "co-operatively with local community members and students in formulating educational goals, curricula, and teaching methods," and general rejection of the idea of schools merely carrying out "the educational directives of government". The great majority of the business people and a majority of parents in all states wanted to see an increase in liaison between the professional educators and employers and professional organizations, but were lukewarm on the idea of local total school community co-operation.

On the specific question of curriculum development, contrary to the arguments previously presented, most parents, businessmen, and over two thirds of unionists in three states, supported the idea that the curriculum should be developed by education officials in association with academic experts and researchers. It was mainly teachers who solidly backed the idea that it is a matter for the "school community, teachers, local community members, and, where appropriate, students." It was teachers, largely who wanted to see such co-operative development increased, and business people who wanted to see it decreased.

On the actual tasks of schooling, there was a high degree of consensus. "The established basics of reading, writing, arithmetic, and spelling" received highest assent (over 90% in most states), closely followed by

"how to assemble facts, pose questions, and arrive at tentative answers" and "how to discover new knowledge." Close to a two thirds majority of all groups agreed that students should learn "that all people have worth and value by virtue of being human," that children should "know their own feelings and personalities," and that "changes are occurring in Australian society." On the first four of these curriculum aims most groups clearly wanted to see an increase in emphasis.

In a similar way over two thirds of all groups in all states thought teachers had a prime responsibility "to provide children with the opportunity to discuss value issues at the appropriate level, and to develop tolerance of diverse values," and a good majority of most groups wanted increased emphasis on this in schooling.

The significance of these findings is somewhat hidden. It is not only that the rhetoric of participation is ahead of practice and that there is no clear willingness by either teachers or the community to seek greater actual co-operation, but that the values of knowledge and schooling most approved and seen most in need of increased emphasis are just those which may depend most on greater co-operation.

Whatever is restraining both teachers and community members from more enthusiastic acceptance of the challenge of school-community co-operation, it does not seem any longer to reside in the overt constraints of educational systems. As Brady and Pope (1980) note: "While the formal restraints on teachers varied from system to system, in all cases the freedoms that had been made available in this area were not being fully exercised." In outlining the position in the states and territories generally, Hunt (1980) reaches a similar conclusion - that community participation is the exception, rather than the rule. The report of the South Australian team at the second national conference perhaps highlighted one difficulty:

Schools have been told that they can and should make decisions about their own curricula, but they have not been given the guidelines or the personnel support required. The result is confusion and scepticism about school-based curriculum development (Brady and Pope, 1980, p. 9).

School-based curriculum development and school evaluation. The freedom of schools to develop their own curricula in the long run depends on a degree of autonomy in four areas - choice of content of the curriculum (i.e. subject matter and learning processes or skills), choice of the procedures to be used (school organization, classroom organization, timetables, teaching methods), choice of assessment procedures and of what is to be assessed, and choice of curriculum evaluation procedures. External control over any one of these aspects is likely to influence the rest.

Deschamp and McGaw (1979), for example, argue that Australian state systems have allowed schools less responsibility for curriculum evaluation than for curriculum development. The curriculum and school evaluation policies of the various states have been reviewed by Hughes, Russell, and McConachy (1978). Each of the eight government systems emphasises the use of school evaluation for school improvement, each

stresses the co-operative nature of the process. However the extent to which senior departmental staff are involved varies. Queensland's co-operative school evaluation system, for example, proceeds along fairly detailed guidelines, set by the department, and is supported by departmental inspectors. Victoria and Northern Territory have a similar approach. In South Australia and the ACT, outside resources are supplied on request and school evaluation is voluntary. In some instances school evaluation serves the double functions of diagnosis, feedback, and explanation on the one hand, and accountability on the other. The Teachers as Evaluators Project bibliographies (McConachy, 1978, 1979, 1980) describe a number of examples of school level evaluations, carried out for a variety of reasons. Hughes et al. (1980), from a study of these reports, have been able to formulate a number of guidelines for the guidance of school staff. As the number of such studies accumulate, there will emerge rich data for understanding the process and the bases of strong inservice programs for teachers.

The guidelines developed by Hughes et al. seem straightforward. For instance, for the first evaluation, "focus on one discreet area of the schools' curriculum, for example, the language program, rather than something as wide ranging and abstract as the school's philosophy and objects." Again, "facilitate the problem identification so that the one chosen is of the greatest concern to the greatest number of participants." (See also Hughes, Russell, McConachy and Harlen, 1979).

The appearance of such lists of advice, backed by an increasing number of case studies, represents a clear achievement. The recent evaluations of co-operative school evaluation in Queensland primary and secondary schools (Queensland Department of Education, 1980a, 1980b) indicate that such guidelines may be needed. In the pilot study in ten primary schools, the researchers drew the following points from expressions of teachers' views: - teachers considered that they were not adequately inducted into procedures of school self-evaluation and lacked skills; they were unsure of the degree of autonomy the school was permitted and failed to perceive advantage in opening decision making processes to the community; since schools did not begin by reviewing their aims, many fundamental aspects were not considered; a serious lack of testing skills on the part of teachers and failure to understand the implications of school-based evaluation resulted in a superficial review of the curriculum; general lack of co-ordination in most schools vitiated teachers' efforts to introduce and apply significant changes following evaluation; few schools understood the need for replicating evaluation after changes had been introduced; no school developed adequate channels to report their progress to the department and the community; schools had generally failed to reconsider their programs adequately so that major difficulties remained undefined and unsolved.

This frank and courageous appraisal by the schools and the department may well lead to a much clearer definition of the problems of school-based decision making and to a more structured approach to providing support services. The report in fact recommends the structuring of both research and school support. Its list of desiderata in co-operative school evaluation also provides useful guides to the kinds of inservice education needed by teachers to help them with these tasks. The list includes: defining roles and types of co-operation; the resolution of

conflict; the establishment of school aims and objectives; the co-ordination of activities; recognition of problems; problem solving; the analysis of syllabuses; the writing of curricular guides; research skills; test construction and use; development of change strategies; the reporting of change; communication of findings; and the induction of new teachers.

It should be mentioned that the findings on school evaluation in secondary schools was very much more positive and generally teachers regarded the process as successful. It is noteworthy that eleven of the fifteen schools in the sample had had prior experience of self-evaluation programs. However, a number of points are raised by a reading of the report and the guidebook which reflect the concerns mentioned above. For example, the guidebook's entry on curriculum refers only to conditions within subjects and subject departments. The total curriculum of the school, and more importantly, the curriculum experienced by individual students, is not set as a possible problem to be explored. The report states also that "little evidence was found of an investigation of the quality of classroom teaching or the standards of student performance." Finally, "very few parents/students knew that a co-operative school evaluation program was operating in their school." There is thus a sense in which the internal school evaluations barely touched what are arguably the most important issues. One can only suspect that the same kind of consensus might arise from a wide scale evaluation study in other states. There does not unfortunately appear to be any such reported.

School-based curriculum development and student assessment. A second area of school-based decision making concerns the assessment of students. Schools assess students for several reasons - to diagnose student difficulties in order to help remedy them and to clarify tasks for students, to monitor the progress of students from day to day, for teachers to monitor and modify their own teaching, to provide evaluations for the purpose of reporting to parents, and to assist classification and selection for further study or employment.

They use different procedures for these purposes, e.g. comments, discussions with pupils, or marks and grades. They assess a variety of components of the students' work, attitudes and methods of study, productions such as projects and essays, and performances in more formal examinations and tests.

Those aspects of assessment which are more properly part of the curriculum are formative ones, which are designed to improve teaching and learning. Those least associated with the curriculum, intended mainly for classification and selection after the event, are the summative procedures. Yet it is well recognized that, because so much depends on summative evaluation for the learner's future educational and vocational career, it is the process of summative assessment which most closely shapes the curriculum. Traditional external assessment is often posited to be an extreme case of this type of influence.

Where external assessment has been removed, as in Queensland and the ACT, one would perhaps expect a greater use of formative aspects of assessment, and a lesser influence of examination (or moderation) procedures on classroom activities and curriculum decision making. This

is not necessarily the case. Evans (1979) questioned a national sample of about 800 teachers on the relative frequency with which they used some 36 teaching activities, including eight items referring to assessment. On five of these items there were significant state differences. Two of these five - "using assessment to help improve their work" and "using assessment to find out how each student is progressing from day to day" - referred directly to formative aspects of assessment. On these two activities, Queensland teachers, on the average, reported least use of any state, and ACT the most. Similarly Queensland teachers used marks as the means of assessment more than other states; ACT teachers used comments and constructive criticism more than others; Queensland teachers reported assessing students' attitudes and methods much less than teachers elsewhere, ACT teachers more. Early studies by Campbell et al. (1976) and Fairbairn, McBryde and Rigby (1976) of the Queensland scheme showed a dramatic increase in frequency of testing of a summative kind for several years after the scheme was introduced. While a more recent study by McBryde and Lamont (1979) indicates that there is now much more use of formative assessment, Evans' results suggest that the problem is not completely solved. The cultural ethos may determine the behaviour of teachers more completely than the particular administrative structures.

It would be wrong to draw too strong inferences from these results and from McBryde and Lamont's conclusions that teachers in Queensland are now relatively happy with the new scheme. What appears to have happened is that the demands have, over time, been reduced to more mechanically straightforward procedures. The daily tasks are no longer seen as problematic. It is not clear to what extent the educational issues underlying assessment have been studied and settled or even whether they are still debated in schools. It is significant that student assessment - its purposes, its management, or its effects - was not one of the issues identified as a problem for evaluation in any of the fifteen schools in the cooperative school evaluation study mentioned previously.

What is the role of inservice education in such a situation? Should it seek to help teachers routinize the new requirements as quickly as possible, perhaps at the expense of short-circuiting in schools the detailed examination which the problem demands? Or should it try to keep alive the problematic nature of the new situation, perhaps at the expense of frustration and tension on the part of teachers, parents and students?

While such general strategy problems may not be solved, the more detailed problem of improving student assessment procedures is receiving considerable attention, both in traditional tertiary inservice courses and in the production of materials (See McConachy 1978, 1979, 1980).

School-based curriculum development. The third area to consider is that of school-based curriculum development itself. Here, again, there is a growing pool of experience and conceptualization. The 1978 Standing Conference on Curriculum Development sponsored by the Curriculum Development Centre (1978) adopted a series of phases as necessary, if not sequential, components of school-based curriculum development. These include situational analysis, goal formulation or setting of aims, program design, implementation, and review and evaluation. A number of the workshops at this conference were able both to provide case studies which fit roughly into this pattern and to suggest procedures for

carrying out each of the various phases. It is evident that co-operative school evaluation can be an important entry point for school-based curriculum development, providing as it does a basis for the analysis of the present problem situation.

Constraints and encouragements. There thus exists in Australia a fairly well rooted technical apparatus, already well developed in some schools, for both development and evaluation, the latter having a more formal support structure than the former. On the surface, it seems as if these two technical innovations together could effectively nourish the thrust towards school-based decision making. However, before that leap is made, it is necessary to examine a variety of factors likely to influence the effectiveness of such an approach.

First it is necessary to examine the influences - constraints and encouragements - on teachers' actions in teaching and in school affairs. These influences can be of two types - those arising from expectations generated both in the school and in the wider context of the school system and those arising from the administrative framework and resources available.

Among the first of these, the most important expectations are inevitably those generated by the employing authority. As Hughes et al (1980) say of school level curriculum evaluation, "there is a need for personnel in education systems to state clearly the purpose of school level evaluation and their expectations concerning the roles of teachers in the process." The same clearly applies to curriculum planning and development in general. As we have seen, it is possible for teachers to receive confused and contradictory messages about their roles, on the one hand encouraging participation and on the other restraining innovation.

A second factor is the beliefs held by teachers. We have seen that schools accept less freedom of action than they appear to have. There may be a number of reasons for this. There is the socialization of teachers by other teachers into beliefs about what is possible in a particular school setting. Such beliefs may also be communicated through the students, who may initially tend to act unfavourably to a change in routine. There is the teacher's consciousness of community and societal expectations. These may sometimes be misrepresented through what receives salience in the media. Again, the administration and resource restraints may be such as to keep teachers so fully occupied, even over-committed, that they have little time or enthusiasm for the reflection and discussion which must inevitably accompany change. An allied outcome of this is that teachers become dependent on available published curriculum materials. School-based decision making, in turn, may in some cases become reduced to a concern with finding other published materials to replace those now out of favour, rather than an analysis of existing practice.

Evans's (1979) survey of teachers of lower secondary students provided information on a number of the influences to which teachers respond. He concluded that the most salient group differences among secondary teachers arise from the subject they teach. Differences between systems, states, rural and urban location, sex, age, experience, and position were all found, but subject taught is most important. On many items,

mathematics and music and art teachers fall at either extreme. From this study, the teacher's own knowledge and skill, students, class size, time available in class, and resources seem to be the most pervading influences on teachers' activities. Teachers appear to view their own judgement as the main source of the learning experiences they provide. Class size, time available, and resources are the greatest discouragers to desired activities. Parents, principals, and moderation systems are seen as encouraging an emphasis on marks, incentives, and utility. Subject masters are seen as having an important positive, if directive, influence on teachers' activities. Other strong discouraging influences are external and school syllabuses, texts available, timetable and school architecture.

Although they are often thought to be important influences on teachers, inspectors, advisory teachers, inservice education, and subject and professional associations were hardly chosen as either encouragers or discouragers for teaching activities of any kind. Syllabuses, available texts, and the moderation system were seen as discouraging some activities valued by teachers, but not strongly encouraging any. Education publications were seen as offering only negative advice about expository teaching. Many of the supposed sources of teacher development, including the opportunity for discussion with other teachers, had relatively little effect on teachers' behaviours. Community resources were not seen as a strong influence while parents, and principals also, were influential mainly in encouraging teachers to assess by marks rather than by comments and discussion.

A related study by Cohen and Harrison (1978) sought the perceptions of 114 department heads and 372 teachers drawn from all states and territories on the extent to which 26 factors influenced decision making in their subject departments. There were marked differences between states, reflecting mostly the state expectation for teachers to make use of official syllabus guidelines at the junior secondary level. Victorian and ACT teachers, for example, attached relatively little influence to external syllabuses or departmental curriculum guidelines, while NSW and Queensland teachers reported great influence. In spite of the absence of external examinations, 54 percent of the Queensland teachers attached a lot of influence to the moderation/examination system, while, of the NSW teachers, who were next in order, only 25 percent did so.

Neglecting interstate differences, the factors most influencing subject department curriculum decision making were, in order: external syllabus (30%), departmental curriculum guidelines (27%), moderation/examination system (24%), texts available (21%), underlying subject structure (20%), Board of Secondary Studies and committees (13%), availability of grants (e.g. from Schools Commission) (9%), inservice courses (8%), advisory teacher (5%), subject related strategies (5%), subject/professional associations (5%), educational books and periodicals (5%).

The percentages in parenthesis indicate the proportion of teachers who thought the factor had "a lot" of influence. Many other factors were rated by less than 2 percent of the respondents in this way. The exception was Northern Territory where 20 percent of teachers thought that community resources had a lot of influence.

A survey by Perrott (1979) of 163 primary teachers in the North West region of New South Wales revealed results in some ways similar to those of Evans and of Cohen and Harrison. Some of her conclusions have implications both for curriculum development and teacher education:

- . Locally based contextual factors appear to be related to the particular usage of curriculum procedures, indicating the appropriateness of school-based curriculum development but also the provision of support and advice structures where personnel are aware of, and take into account, the complexity of the localized context.
- . There is a correlation between the style of curriculum development and planning procedures used by teachers and the style of classroom procedures used. For example, more co-operation between teachers in planning appears to be related to a less directive approach in the classroom. (While there is obviously a danger in moving from correlation to an assumption of causality, the direction of some future useful research is indicated.)
- . Individual teachers show a variety of styles in teaching. The pattern for any one teacher is frequently quite complex depending on subject area and other contextual factors. The notion of "teacher style" may have little empirical foundation.
- . The teachers in Perrott's sample attached greater influence to initial teacher training, inservice education, theories of learning and child development, and educational philosophy than might be predicted from the prevailing myths concerning theory and practice.
- . The school principal and deputy principal were considered to be important influences on the overall school curriculum, indicating the importance of their role in planning the overall context.

THE RESPONSE OF RECURRENT EDUCATION AGENCIES TO PRESSURES FOR TEACHER PARTICIPATION

In this section the roles presently taken by various agencies who have responsibilities in recurrent education are concerns. Many types of professional development experience can be distinguished: In-school experiences, work with visiting consultants, use of resources developed beyond the school, participation in professional associations, meetings in teacher centres, inservice courses and seminars, and formal award bearing courses.

Each type of experience may be initiated by a number of different agents - school personnel themselves, consortia of schools, the educational system, state development committees, teacher centres, resource centres, publishers, national agencies such as the Curriculum Development Centre, National Innovations Committee, funded projects, and tertiary institutions. No particular provision, except perhaps award bearing courses, is unique to any agency, and funding is similarly complex. Apart from the observation that such an obviously

complex system might be helped by some degree of co-operation and co-ordination, this paper will concentrate on the inservice experiences themselves rather than on organisation or funding. An excellent discussion paper on these latter issues has been prepared by the Schools Commission (1979).

School-Based Experiences. Skilbeck, Evans, and Harvey (1977), in reviewing the inservice education and training of teachers (INSET) in Australia, noted that:

The concepts and practices of INSET and curriculum development are becoming blurred; although curriculum development is only one possible theme of INSET it can be a very absorbing and significant one for teachers. Furthermore, it is coming to be recognized that effective curriculum development must incorporate strategies and programs of teacher education, inservice and pre-service (p. 157).

The same might be said of other aspects of school-based decision making - co-operative school evaluation, school organization, involvement of students, and working with parents. These activities are a form of inservice education, although not the only form. Because these school-based activities serve the important double function of both professional action and professional learning, they may rightly be regarded as the centre-piece of INSET activities. They can be used both to reflect on classroom teaching and also to sponsor independent self-development of teachers, particularly through their interaction in communities of common interest, and through addressing common problems. At the same time they ought to give point to other forms of INSET and, in particular, set special tasks for consultative services, problem-focussed conferences, seminars, courses, and providers of information and resources.

Not surprisingly, it is school-based activities which teachers see as the most valuable strategy among non-award INSET activities. In surveys in both Victoria and Tasmania (see Batten, 1979), teachers were asked to rate eight different strategies for carrying out an inservice program. In both cases, highest ratings went to "school-based activities which examine problems of organization and/or curriculum that face the staff of a particular school." The same teachers were also asked to rate six factors which might contribute to professional development. In this case there were some differences between the samples. The Victorian teachers rated "formal study, research and professional reading" most highly, closely followed by "original teacher training" and "formal or informal meetings within the school to discuss educational topics". The Tasmanian teachers rated these three highly, but also put considerably more value on "inservice courses" than the Victorian teachers.

In either sample, more than 60 percent of teachers responded that they had actually been involved in teacher development activities within the school. Unfortunately, participation in actual curriculum planning or development and regular staff meetings were not given as one of the alternative modes of school-based inservice. Among those listed, the great majority of teachers rated all six activities as having considerable or moderate value, but there were again differences between

the two samples. Each of the following forms is, according to the data, worthwhile pursuing: short meetings to discuss particular topics, whole day activities for staff, interchange with or visits to other schools. Residential conferences were less highly rated. So too were visits from consultants and interaction with parents at inservice activities. The relative lack of popularity of these, particularly in the Victorian sample, hints at problems for community involvement and for the traditional consultancy role. So, too, do the data reported by Evans (1979) mentioned earlier.

There are a number of other indications of the prepotency of in-school participation as inservice education. Batten (1979) quotes strong evidence from teachers and administrators in all systems for this view. The 1979-81 Triennial Report of the Schools Commission asserted not only its belief in the value of school-based decision making but also its belief in it as an important learning process. A research study reported by Logan and Dore (1976) came to the same conclusions. After studying hierarchies of inservice needs constructed by five differing groups of teachers, as well as groups of principals, inspectors, advisory teachers, and Queensland education department administrators, their foremost conclusions were that: (i) the school should be the unit of focus for inservice education and possible programs should not only be based on a particular school but in that particular school; and (ii) guided self-analysis and problem solution seeking should be the basic principle for the conduct of inservice education activities. They also made the important point that in-service education planning should be based on a "teacher-development" model rather than a "teacher-defective" model.

There is also good theoretical support for using school-based decision making as a form and focus of INSET. Concrete experience occasions reflection and generalization, which further enhances practice. (See, for example, Freire, 1972; Miles, 1959). While Freire's analysis refers mainly to the learner in relationship to the teacher, it can also be used recursively in thinking of the teacher's learning. Freire (1974) argues for the curriculum to be a series of problems to be "unveiled".

From these problems, themes may be developed which help the learner both to codify his own experience and to reflect critically on them. Such a view not only changes the relationship between teacher educator and teacher, but also between teacher and school student. Role definitions become less clear. An example is presented by Evans (1980) in her description of a school focussed pre-service education program which involved, in some measure, role redefinition for school pupils, student teachers, teachers, and college lecturers. Similarly, the logic of school-based INSET cannot be "turned off" when the spotlight focusses on students and parents. If school-based decision making implies an opportunity for growing awareness and understanding of context on the part of teachers, it must also do so for their students and for the school community they serve. Perrott's (1979) study showed that teacher participation and student participation may in fact be correlated.

A similar theme underlies the recent Curriculum Development Centre (1980) document on Core Curriculum. In speaking of it, Skilbeck argues that it is based on the premise that "Learning is envisaged as active, critical and reflective - an affirmation and reconstruction of experience not a

reproduction in learning environments of established facts, skills, etc. ... The school is conceived not merely as socially reproductive but as capable of engaging in socially and culturally creative enterprises; it mediates rather than transmits" (Skilbeck, 1980, p. 27). The argument fits teachers as well as students.

Accounts of school-based inservice teacher education programs in Australia are less easy to find than arguments for it. Accounts illustrating how consultants can be used are even scarcer. Batten (1979) provides several examples, as do Skilbeck, Evans, and Harvey (1977). Further examples of implicit school based INSET may be found through the bibliographies of the Teachers as Evaluators Project (McConachie, 1978, 1979, 1980) and the Curriculum Development Centre's (1978) report on the standing conference. These last two, particularly, raise the important question of the role of the "providers" in these forms of teacher education. This role must logically become one of catalyst, facilitator, or consultant. The situation is simply that there is now a fair amount of accumulated knowledge of techniques in school-based curriculum development, school evaluation, and action research (e.g. Elliott, 1980; Kemmis, 1980), each one of which is a potentially powerful tool. What is the best way of sharing this knowledge with teachers generally? Given the rhetoric of school-based decision making, should not such procedural knowledge also be generated in the school setting? An approach to this question is considered more fully in the last section of this paper.

Support within the School. It has frequently been remarked that school-based decision making may stop with the principal or the administrative team. Since principals have considerable legal responsibility for their schools there is an obvious temptation for them to reserve the final judgement to themselves. Such a situation is not likely to lead to more effective teacher or parent participation in decision making. This situation may be more supposed than real. In primary schools, Perrott found, by contrast, that while the principal and deputy principal were among the major influences on the operational curriculum, as a whole they were not so on teaching procedures and content organization procedures. That is, penetration of the principal's influence into the classroom may be minimal.

In secondary schools, the next focus of decision making after the principal and deputy principal is the subject master. The subject department's administrative distinctiveness may have a number of consequences. First, in secondary school, all or most curriculum decisions may be taken in subject departments. This places even the principal in a position of dependency, since he cannot be considered expert in most subject areas. Second, it may have the effect of preventing certain types of curriculum problems from even being considered in any detailed serious way. Third, it concentrates a good deal of power into the hands of the subject masters.

Cohen and Harrison (1978) report precisely this situation from their survey. About 64 percent of teachers saw the subject master as having "a lot" of influence in the curriculum decision making of their department and 28 percent said "some". The corresponding figures for the principal were 12 percent and 33 percent. Indeed principals themselves thought they had only limited control over choice of teaching materials,

assessment of student progress, selecting content, and choosing teaching techniques, although they enjoyed more control over stating objectives and use of classroom space. Evans and Cotterell (1976) and Bartlett and Ogilvie (1980) reported a similar prepotence of the subject department and subject master. The latter stress the critical importance of considering both subject master and subject department in any scheme of professional development.

The new demands on subject masters have been investigated by Bartlett and Ogilvie (1978). They argue that the devolution of authority within Australian school systems has left the definition of the role confusing and vague, their role as curriculum developers competing, to some extent, with line administrative roles. It largely falls to them to introduce resource materials into the school and to develop a co-operative approach within their department.

This situation creates something of a dilemma. For while the subject department in many schools provides an excellent opportunity for staff participation in decision making, it may effect closure rather than openness towards some of the main problems which school-based decision making should solve, e.g. meeting the needs of each particular student as a totality and co-operating with parents and the community on a school basis; balance in the curriculum, core curriculum, and pastoral care. Grassie (1978a, b) argues from his research that principals are at risk in seeing their main role as running the school efficiently as an organization. That "takes so much of their time and energy that they have insufficient of either left to read or think ...". The role of educational leader, Grassie argues, is devolving on others, like subject masters.

Inservice Education: Award and Non-Award Activities. Inservice education programs and facilities are taken here to refer to activities in teacher centres or education centres, short courses, seminars and workshops, and school-based activities, from short meetings to release of the school staff for a prolonged within-school conference. Cohen and Harrison (1978) in their survey asked teachers and heads of school subject departments at the lower secondary level to rate some 26 factors as influences on departmental curriculum decision making. For "inservice", some 8 percent said "a lot", 41 percent said "some", 41 percent "very little" and 10 percent "none", corresponding effectively with Evans' (1979) figures for influences on classroom activities. The same result, virtually, was found by Evans and Cotterell (1976) in studying the Radford Scheme in Queensland.

There can be no doubt that facilities for inservice education have greatly improved over the last seven or eight years. The NITE Report (1980) indicates that during 1977-78, the large majority of teachers attended some form of non-award inservice activity. It is therefore somewhat startling to find that teachers do not attach more influence to these experiences in their curriculum decision making.

Two factors need to be considered along with these findings. First, while inservice courses are not seen as strongly influencing decision making directly, they are attributed somewhat more influence on teachers' overall professional development (Batten, 1979). Other results indicate

that the mainspring of teachers' decisions are their own knowledge and skills (Evans, 1979), and, for group decision making, the teaching skill and knowledge of group members (Cohen and Harrison, 1978). Again, the Victorian survey (Batten, 1979, p.76) showed that the single most important source of change in classroom teaching methods was "self motivation" (e.g. because of dissatisfaction with children's responses with an existing method or program).

It may well be, then, that one of the most valuable features of inservice education is to provide teachers with the background knowledge and confidence which allows them to participate more effectively in the constructive processes of school decision making.

In this regard, in spite of charges that formal award courses in universities and colleges are remote from the real concerns of teachers (e.g. Batten, 1979; Cameron, 1978; 16), there is considerable evidence that they, also, are seen by teachers as contributing to their professional development (Batten, 1979; 69 and 95). Cove (1975) anticipated such a result by arguing that the original report of the interim committee of the Schools Commission ignored upgrading and other courses being undertaken by thousands of teachers, as if nothing could be done through formal studies which would assist in bringing about change. Yet, Cove argued, "short courses lasting a few days cannot be a substitute for intensive study designed to meet the special needs of mature, practising teachers" (Cove, 1975, pp. 57, 58).

According to the 1978 Review of Teacher Education in Queensland (Bassett Report, 1978) as many as one in four teachers may be enrolled for courses leading to a formal award, although a later survey commissioned by the National Inquiry into Teacher Education (1980, p. 72) put the national figure at 13 percent for 1977-78.

This represents a considerable resource which has great potential to help teachers in decision making. Most universities and colleges with post-experience courses include some aspects of school decision making in their offerings, through courses in educational administration, curriculum, and the like. The difficult problem to solve is the extent to which such courses should bear directly on the day to day tasks of the school and the extent to which they should be concerned with generative knowledge, allowing teachers to engage in effective problem solving.

There are several aspects of school-based decision making which may benefit from technical support, both in the form of consultancies in the school and in the form of formal courses for the teachers who will be involved. These include courses on curriculum planning and curriculum development, school and curriculum evaluation, action research skills, and studies of group dynamics and group processes.

A study of the course offerings of departments of education at universities and colleges of advanced education shows that most have catered for such needs through post-experience course offerings, through bachelor's degrees, graduate diplomas, or master's level study. There is an important strategic problem to be considered, however. It arises from the fact that any genuine understanding of curriculum planning and design, evaluation, action research, or group processes rests on

reflections on practical experience. In order to ensure this, the Bassett Report (1978) suggested a mandatory one year of formal course work taken in service early in the teacher's career. The NITE Report does not make a similar suggestion. Rather it has, in effect, recommended that such an extra year of study should be taken pre-service.

The strongest argument for increasing all pre-service courses to four years duration is to allow the inclusion of a reasonable liberal studies component, as part of the teacher's general academic education, not increased professional studies in the pre-service phase. It is argued here, along with the Bassett Report, that some formal educational study in both necessary and only comprehensible to the teacher with some experience. (See also, Evans, 1980).

Support Services as Inservice Education. The previous discussion has at several points referred to external support services of various kinds. These include teacher centres and education centres, resource centres, resource personnel, including inspectors, and other consultants at the state level. The relationship of these services to school-based decision making will require more research and analysis than presently seems available. The point to make here is that each of these services, when properly focussed on the teacher's task, constitutes an important type of inservice education.

One aspect of support is the provision of information exchanges and information sources. To illustrate, the basic strategy of the School and Community Project (1977-1980) is through dissemination of case studies and other analyses in its magazine, "School and Community News". The format of this publication, which in a sense also embodies the data of the project, should prove attractive to teachers, parents, and student teachers. Other projects have used similar dissemination procedures - for example, a number of the curriculum teams involved in the CDC's Social Educational Materials Program (SEMP) and the National Innovations Committee's program in various states. The ERDC established its own committee on dissemination, implying a realization of its major importance in educational research.

The Curriculum Information Service first piloted by the Curriculum Development Centre in 1977 provides for interchange of curriculum documents, a register of curriculum development projects, profiles of curriculum materials, an interchange of state media centre materials, and library services. Most of these will be accessible to teachers.

Finally, the most comprehensive information supports come from state education departments and boards of studies which publish not only formal curriculum guides and supplementary materials, but digests of educational reports, analyses of curriculum innovations, information on events important to schooling, reports by teachers and the like.

The fact remains that the studies reported by Cohen and Harrison (1978) and Evans (1979), based on large representative national samples of teachers, indicated only marginal reliance of publications of any kind, apart from text books and curriculum materials, for school-based curriculum decision making, neither much using them nor regretting their lack. Perhaps a basic reason for this is teachers' feelings of time pressures.

One might argue that, after all, the most important resource services and supports are people. However, these and other studies indicate that here again their influence, if not their services, is fairly small. Inspectors, resource teachers, and other consultants simply do not seem to make much difference to school decision making or teachers' actions.

IMPLICATIONS FOR THE FUTURE

Implications for Inservice Education. The NITE Report (1980, p. 68) strongly supported the provision of inservice education as "the major means of safeguarding and further improving the effectiveness of the teaching force and thus the quality of learning in Australia's 10,000 schools and preschools." As noted earlier, the report presents a useful first approximation to a model of experience in teaching. It also pays considerable attention to both school-based decision making and staff development, taking the view that "professional development of teachers can best be assured within a framework of staff development planned and organized at the school level" (p.78).

It is therefore all the more unfortunate that these insights were not used more substantially in either the recommendations on inservice education or highlighted in the extracted position statements. The statement by Skilbeck, Evans, and Harvey (1977, p. 165) that there is a need also for programs of inservice education "that are neither school-based, nor even directly related to classroom concerns, if we are to avoid parochialism and inbreeding" is still true. However, this paper attempts to argue that much of INSET should also refer to problems raised in teachers' school experience. Balance is essential.

The NITE Report shows a concern for the structural elements of inservice provision, characterised, as it were, by the three estates: formal award inservice courses, non-award inservice programs, and informal inservice education, all separated in some sense from the teacher's actual work. None of the varieties of inservice experience listed on page 69 of the Report, for example, actually involves teaching a class or participating in school program development. The real problem in teacher education is not a structural or funding problem, but a problem of function and process - of how to connect teacher education experiences with teacher work experiences in a way which encourages reflection, hypothesis making, explanation, attempts at change, evaluation, and personal insight. The position argued in this paper is that one way, among others, of achieving some of these is through co-operative planning and development in the school itself. As one Year 8 teacher recently put it: "Teaching in this centre is a kind of professional development". Obviously, it is the promotion of just these kinds of activities that is necessary to ensure the success of school-based decision making.

In order to hypothesise how the desired connections might be made, it seems necessary to list both the elements in the school setting which are the focus of INSET and the elements of INSET themselves, particularly the providers and their functions. Finally there needs to be an examination of actual and possible linkages between the two systems.

The elements or concerns of school-based decision making include:

- . School organizational development.
- . School-based decision making either by departments or teams working on the whole school curriculum.
- . Co-operative school evaluation, which is a precursor and follow up to organizational development and curriculum development.
- . School/community linkages. The community will also be involved in the tasks already listed.
- . School staff development programs.
- . Use of information sources, including resource networks.
- . Work with other schools.
- . Setting the conditions of appropriate student participation.
- . Team teaching and team planning in particular teaching tasks.

To these could be added for completeness elements with which the individual teacher might be more personally concerned:

- . Improvement of individual teaching roles.
- . Improvement of professional knowledge and general awareness of educational issues.
- . General education.
- . Updating of particular professional knowledge and skills.

It is of course likely that all of the functions on the second list will benefit as the result of group involvement, but they can be seen at least as conceptually different from those in the first list in that they alter the person rather than alter the group planning and the context directly.

The "providers" of inservice teacher education within the school include:

- . The school peer group.
- . The principal, deputy principal (school administration team).
- . The subject master, department head, or year co-ordinator.
- . The information on curriculum, educational issues, teaching, and the like, which flows into the school.
- . Community members involved in the school.
- . Consultants in the school (inspectors, resource teachers, tertiary teachers).
- . Professional Tutors.
- . The teacher himself or herself.
- . Professional Associations of teachers.
- . National Innovations Committee and other granting bodies.

The "providers" of inservice education outside the school include:

- . Formal courses, usually in tertiary institutions.
- . Non-award inservice programs, courses, seminars.
- . Teacher centres, education centres and resource centres.
- . Teachers from other schools involved with joint projects and with mutual interest.
- . Consultants from the education system, other schools, tertiary institutions, community sources.
- . Publication and information sources.

The final ingredient to begin to solve the problem of making connections concerns the nature of the teacher as a learner. We are helped in this analysis by the recent work of Corrigan, Haberman, and Howey (1979) who argue for treating the teacher primarily as an adult learner. They propose a number of different aspects of adult learning which need to be considered. These include some aspects that have already been alluded to in this paper:

- . With increasing age, some learning functions are known to decrease.
- . Older teachers can make use of more experience.
- . There is a need for sequence and logic in any body of knowledge to be mastered.
- . Motivation, feedback, and readiness apply to adult learning.
- . Adults of different ages face different developmental or life tasks, e.g. in family life, career orientation, etc.
- . Adult learning is conditioned by situational pressures. Effective response may require a change in these pressures.
- . Peer groups have significant influence on adult thinking and learning.

Some of these four sets of elements need explanation. The school-based tasks have been fully discussed. Their significance to inservice education can be further shown by using as a model the Schools and Inservice Teacher Education (SITE) project (Baker, 1980) being undertaken in Bristol. Baker (p. 182) draws for theory on Hoyle's (1972) analysis which suggests that:

- . INSET should be linked to specific school innovations.
- . INSET should focus on functioning groups (e.g. a departmental team or whole primary school staff).
- . Schools should establish their own staff development program.
- . Schools should receive external support including consultancy services.

Another major principle, that school staffs be encouraged to regard their own context and work as problematic, has been also discussed above.

Among the school-based "providers", four elements need to be explained. First it needs to be pointed out that once community members are involved in school decision making, they also become sources of information and prompts to greater understanding of school policy, etc. Second, information brought into the school and consultants have the double role of being both external and internal. Both need to be "internalized" into the school setting. Perrott (1979) makes the point that consultants are seen to operate best when they become part of the social context of the school (presumably for long involvement) rather than being merely visitors. Similarly, there is a need to "internalize" information sources. At the simplest level, pamphlets, magazines, letters, etc. need to be passed on to the staff. Even with this, informal judgements as to how much of such material is read are disappointing. There is an obvious problem for research here, but a best guess is that it will need some person in the school who has the task of making such material significant to his colleagues.

This leads to a third possibility, one novel to Australian schools, but by now well tried in England. It is that of having a special position on staff of a Professional Tutor. Bolam (1980) provides a concise description of the role, which has developed considerably since the initiation in the U.K. of pilot schemes in teacher induction. The job of the professional tutor is, briefly, to co-ordinate initial induction and inservice aspects of teacher education as they are needed in the school. On the inservice side, for example, he or she might co-ordinate all professional studies courses, ensure that all information on INSET opportunities reaches the staff involved, plan for accommodating staff absences from school for INSET purposes, make career opportunities known to staff, help staff in planning their career steps and inservice education requirements and help staff make contact with consultants, resource literature, or speakers on special topics. Bolam, Baker, and McMahon (1979) have also evaluated, with positive results, various attempts at providing training for professional tutors. Professional tutors could clearly help greatly in linking sources of inservice education within the school and also in co-ordinating sources from outside the school.

It is to an examination of possible linkages that we now turn. It is a reasonable assumption that links are going to be strongest when both groups have common interests and involvements. Subject associations in Australia, for example, now have, at secondary level, a traditional and accepted role in inservice education, as well as in contributing as professional groups to state wide curriculum planning and state and national projects. They also serve as a means of linking staff from all levels of education in joint enterprises, to such an extent that the distinction between teacher and consultant is lost or meaningless.

There may well be many opportunities for the same kinds of linkages between schools and external providers of INSET - formal courses, non-award courses, teacher centres and resource centres, and research projects. A good example of the last is the School and Community Project, which not only creates this kind of link but has provided an important dissemination services into schools. Other possibilities include:

. Formal award-bearing courses: To the extent that such courses and concerned with the analysis of practice, the substance and process of school-based decision making currently being experienced by teachers who are students in such courses are appropriate sources of project work and data-bases for the formal course. Such is already the case for many courses, e.g. curriculum studies, but the list could clearly be extended to include all courses in education departments.

. Non-Award activities: Because they are short and can be proposed by teachers, such seminars and courses should and do readily lend themselves to the link function through, e.g., discussion of case studies, workshops on specific topics or specially mounted information sessions. One interesting example of such an approach was that of Logan (described in Skilbeck, Evans and Harvey, 1977, pp. 148-150), using 15 "lead teachers" from seven primary schools in a single locality. In this two phase approach, the "lead teachers" attended meetings designed to increase their ability to personalize instruction. In phase 2, these teachers acted as change agents in their own schools.

. Resource and teacher centres: The link here can be more specific still, since resources can be especially selected to meet the needs of the particular school project. However, such centres can also become the venue for interschool planning meetings and the like.

Project-linked activities shared between schools and the traditional providers of inservice education raise a further question on the role of the teacher. To what extent can teachers not only participate in research but also conduct it? Experience suggests that teachers are volunteering increasingly less as subjects in externally-directed quantified research. That route does not often seem to lead the teacher to greater insights about his own teaching or his students' learning. What is suggested here is to commit the teacher in part to the research role, not as an extra responsibility, but as part of his or her planning for teaching and co-operative evaluation. The particular research model is that of "action research". An account of action research and of teachers' response to involvement in it is given by Kemmis (1980).

The "network" notion implicit in much of what has been said in this paper can now be elaborated slightly. It is envisaged that inservice education, as described here, will involve a network of people not only in the profession but in the community as well. There are already signs that this network exists, particularly in the way many schools rapidly become involved in current trends. What is needed is not only a fast relaying of trends but modes of critical analysis whose task is to test the work of innovatory thinking. There are two dangers. One is that notions spreading through the network may be accepted at a local level without due analysis. A worse danger is that without some degree of local option, new trends may be prematurely and centrally bureaucratized, often with severe distortions of their original conception.

Implications for Research. This review indicates that there already are a number of significant development and research projects underway in Australia which are likely to provide important information and prototypes for future development. Some of these are already having penetrating effects. What appears to be needed further than this are organizations of networks which will make the majority of schools aware of what a minority is accomplishing. This more widespread awareness is likely to have to wait on the slow processes of social change for real innovations in educational thought. However a number of research and development thrusts may help speed the process. Some suggestions are listed below:

- (i) It may be useful to conduct a research study on the take-up of information in schools. What is the actual fate of publications which enter the school? What is the outcome when staff members bring back information from formal and informal inservice study?
- (ii) What is the effect of school structures on the effectiveness of decision making? What is the effect of the secondary school organization by subject departments on the kinds of possibilities which are considered. How do schools organized in this way compare with those which are not? Do opportunities for team teaching or team planning change appreciably the likelihood of effective

co-operative decision making? What is the role and influence of the principal?

- (iii) How well do schools that are already exercising autonomy in curriculum decision making also make provisions for community involvement? To what extent are sectional community interests being addressed even where there is community representation in school governance?
- (iv) How responsive are schools exercising varying levels of autonomy in decision making to pressure for curriculum change? How does school-initiated change compare with system-initiated change?
- (v) Where courses in school evaluation, curriculum development, action research, or group processes have been undertaken by teachers, what effects have they had on practice? What are the conditions under which there are appreciable effects?
- (vi) A way of using school-based projects as links between course work and schools has been suggested. The most effective way to test these suggestions may be through action research projects.
- (vii) The professional tutor role appears from evaluations made in England to offer an important facility in recurrent education. It could well be explored in Australia on a trial basis.

For many of these suggestions for research, there already are important projects underway. The list is meant to give emphasis to their importance.

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A CASE STUDY OF FOUR RELIGIOUS TEACHING ORDERS: IMPLICATIONS
FOR TEACHER PARTICIPATION AND RECURRENT EDUCATION NEEDS

Ervyn Whitehead

INTRODUCTION

The issues raised in this paper are derived from two studies on which the author has recently been engaged. One is a study of stress and coping in four provinces of Catholic nuns, who were primarily engaged in teaching; the other, a digression from the first into the area of inservice education, was a short project to obtain information from practising teachers for the South Australian Enquiry into Teacher Education. The information was used to test the relevance and validity of findings from the "Stress and Coping" study.

THE CONTEXT OF THE STUDY

It is proposed here that, in order to understand the present malaise in school systems, one has to understand the fundamental shifts in social expectations and attitudes which have occurred in the last quarter century, and grasp the implications these have for institutions such as the education system and the people who work in them. These shifts include a radical change in the nature and exercise of authority in society and the need and desire for personal responsibility which is integral to human dignity and self respect.

The points being made are well illustrated in the daily press. For example, in the "Age" for Monday, October 6th, 1980, were three articles which alluded to education. Firstly, there was a letter to the Editor headed, "Criticisms of teachers are based on a world that doesn't exist today". The writer pointed out that the exercise of authority in the classroom is different now because it is acceptable for children to question and not accept rules and customs; that tuition is expected to be tailored to the needs of individual students; and that teachers have a new organising and facilitating role in providing additional classroom resources. The second article, titled "Teachers Attack Student Test Plan", reported the President of the Australian Teachers' Federation asking teachers not to co-operate in a testing program approved by State and Federal Ministers of Education to be carried out by the A.C.E.R. The third dealt with the problems of a Country Party candidate, a former acting regional director of Education, trying to communicate his views on the new human relations course in secondary schools. In this article the salient points to be noted are the comments of his questionnaires that teachers had lost credibility and were no longer trusted, and the comment of one woman, "It has come to the stage where we question the integrity of everybody". These arguments, actions, and attitudes are not new in 1980; they are typical of issues which have been in the daily papers and teachers' journals for the last decade. Our research, although based on four Provinces of Catholic Nuns, relates to these issues: a rapidly changing society making demands on institutions, a changed attitude to authority, and the problems of recreating a climate of trust within which social institutions can meet the needs of their members and clients.

TEACHER STRESS AND COPING - THE CATHOLIC STUDY

This study began in 1975 when concern was expressed by both education Department directorates and teachers union officials at the apparent increase in teacher "breakdowns" due to stress. An initial brief study of records from the South Australian School Medical Officer's files, complemented by a sampling of teachers Workers Compensation cases from Victoria, confirmed the view that stress illnesses could be attributed as much to teachers' personal lives as to classroom experiences. Most were connected to experiences which threatened or unsettled the teacher's concept of herself.

A review of stress literature confirmed this link with self concept, but also raised the association of stress with change. Moreover it appeared that "illness" (the initial concern) was not a reliable indication of stress, as ill-health was an idiosyncratic response; not all people exposed to the same circumstances became ill. The study was thus broadened to include some understanding of the factors which enabled people to cope.

About this time the Director of Catholic Education jokingly remarked that if researchers wished to study stress illnesses they should do a study of the Catholic Sisters - "they are always getting sick", (a remark which on investigation proved more impression than truth). However, the Sisters did provide one of the few populations available in which one could objectively document experiences of personal and communal change for a retrospective study. Moreover the changes they had experienced in the period 1960 to 1976 were as extreme as one could hope to find anywhere. The research team owes a great debt of gratitude to the four groups of Sisters, who after communal consultation allowed free access to their confidential files and papers documenting the deliberations of their committees over the period 1952-78 and also gave most generously of their time and trust in personal interviews. The team is also indebted to the Catholic Education Office for allowing us to use their files on the schools in which the Sisters taught.

What was quite unexpected was that the records of change in the religious orders would provide the researchers with vital clues to the relationship between the individual experience of stress, the ability to cope, and the management of change within an institution. As a team we were rather pleased when all these links became apparent, but we have to admit that what appeared exciting to us was really not new, but already well researched and written up in several other guises, particularly in the literature on work participation and social organisation.¹ If we have done anything new, it is to develop a sociological model demonstrating the links between the experience of individual stress and the management of change within an institution.

Before moving on to some of these key concepts it is worth quoting briefly from a submission prepared by Ross Holmes, the General Secretary of the Victorian Teachers Union (V.T.U.), in 1975, for the Committee of Enquiry into Health and Health Services.² The paper addresses the problem of illness caused by stress. It refers to Herzberg's (1966) writings³ which drew attention to the difference in effect on job satisfaction of factors which relate to working conditions such as

salary, physical surroundings, administrative practices and job security, and factors which affect motivation. Herzberg claimed that motivating factors were those which enabled the person to achieve "self realization", by which he meant opportunities to act according to innate potentialities within the limits of reality. He believed that it was during the performance of a task that an individual can realise the rewards which will reinforce aspiration. Holmes⁴ commented, "Opportunities must exist for the work of teachers to be given the recognition it deserves, and for them to exercise professional responsibility and independence". Further on in the paper he noted:

Social and political changes were reflected in schools - in the content of courses, and the methodology of teaching. Teachers were subjected to social pressures to change the nature of their teaching. Often this has been done in such a way as to deny the validity of previously used well tested methods. Without adequate explanation and preparation for change, the teacher is being forced to question past procedures, is forced to doubt his or her own efficiency and capability as a teacher. In the present circumstances many teachers inevitably construe these pressures as a somewhat unreasonable criticism of their personal ability.

The need for change in schools exists as long as there are changing social and economic conditions. In order that teachers may be better able to cope with change:

- (a) the changes must be effected with the full understanding and co-operation of the teachers involved, and
- (b) flexibility and adaptability in teachers must be encouraged from the start of their teaching careers.

Then he quotes from Schein (1965)⁵:

If the organisation is to make itself capable of adapting to and managing change, it may well have as one of its major psychological problems the encouragement of diversity of skills and the psychological growth of its employees. Such psychological growth not only may make the management of change easier but may also ameliorate some other problems such as how to motivate employees, how to create commitment to an organisation, and, most important, how to create a situation in which personal needs and organizational needs can both be satisfied.

It may be that advisors to the Vatican Fathers had been reading the same literature as Mr Holmes, but they had translated much of it into policy by 1966. Our study of the Catholic Orders shows that the translation of policy into action, and its transforming effect on the institution's life took more than fifteen years to show major effects, and the process is continuing still. Probably many education departments have developed policies on paper and are initiating practices which recognise the need for organizational change. Our study showed that for policies and new structures to be effective it is necessary to achieve attitudinal change in both the leadership and the majority of the membership. This takes time, and it also requires a considerable rethink of many things which

are taken for granted. It is the last which is most difficult. For example, we talk of the generation gap but have not given sufficient thought to the very different attitudes and expectations which lie unspoken and unexplored between people of diverse ages and origins. Such a gap exists also between the usually successful and the rest - the 'also rans' - and we do not hear what is being said across the gap because the same language means different things, depending on one's unquestioned assumptions. The groups of Religious Sisters, however, addressed this problem and can show ways of overcoming it. They have experienced many difficulties and still have many, but understanding their mistakes and successes may help the rest of us.

STRESS, COPING, COMMITMENT AND THE MANAGEMENT OF CHANGE

Sociologists look at the human situation from a disciplinary perspective in which people are understood as having a "world view" - an understanding of self and society which conditions their perception and experience of daily events.⁶

For the most part we perceive or experience that which we expect to see or experience; thus much human activity is habituated, so taken for granted that little effort needs to be expended in deliberation or choice. However, there come times when events and information cannot be made to fit with our previous experience or our images of self and society, and we are forced then to re-examine our assumptions and to make alterations, adaptations and occasionally dramatic shifts to encompass the new realities.

"Stress" is related to physiological changes in the individual when faced with problematic situations for which there is no habitual response. Whether this is exhilarating or debilitating often depends on one's innate confidence or past experience in being able to cope. People are stressed by events or ideas which cannot be made to fit with previous experiences and which require them to adapt their ideas either of themselves or of their world. If such an adaptation requires an unfavourable reassessment of oneself, or one's ability, or the denial of values to which one was previously committed, the stress is usually debilitating.

"Coping" is the behaviour developed to manage situations which produce stress. Our flexibility in coping is tied to our image of ourselves, our self concept. There is theory to suggest that individuals have an innate capacity to develop skills in affecting their environment, and that the results of using these skills cumulatively shape their sense of competence to manage situations and relate to other people. By implication, it would seem that both successes and failures are built into a person's self-image, and affect their willingness to risk themselves in new situations, and the stress they experience when faced with new situations. As Selye⁷ has observed, not all stress is debilitating; people who are confident of their ability to cope often respond to a problematic situation with some exhilaration accepting the challenge and gaining the rewards of mastering the problem.

The self concept is linked to social roles, a socialised world view, and commitments to values, institutions and specific individuals. As a

person develops she gradually takes to herself an image of who she is, mostly absorbed from the way significant people define her. Over time people develop a view of themselves: "I am the sort of person who" or "I am a". We define ourselves through the institutions to which we attach ourselves, and the values we espouse. The more we act upon such views the more deeply committed to them we become.⁸

Commitment itself is a crucial concept in understanding the link between stress and change. In this regard three theoretical aspects of commitment need to be emphasised:

- (1) commitment can be understood as one pole on the continuum of involvement, the other pole being alienation⁹;
- (2) commitment can be understood as the nexus between personal experience and organisational requisites¹⁰;
- (3) in maintaining commitments related to self and society it is important to know that someone cares whether you maintain them or not.¹¹

Thus it would appear that people whose commitments are to core values supported by intrinsic rewards rather than to specific views supported by extrinsic rewards will find it easier to impute meaning into a new situation, and structure it into an acceptable world view. Those who trust significant people or institutions in their world to know what is best or right will manage to accommodate change endorsed by that person or group, although too many changes or obvious mistakes are likely to be destructive of the trust relationship.

Perhaps one of the major social changes of the past quarter century has been a change in the way authority is understood and exercised. This has required individuals to internalise core values and attitudes on which they can make judgements and act responsibly but flexibly in a pluralistic society. This demands a reorientation of self understanding and of organisational expectations. Commitments have had to be rebuilt. Worker participation has been one successful way of doing this, but our research indicates that it is the rebuilding of trust and the recognition of individual worth which are the essential elements. Trust relates to the building of a shared world view so that consistency of behaviour is possible; personal dignity relates to the assurance that one is respected as competent in some areas of life; and self respect gives one the motivation and confidence to cope in problematic situations.

Keeping these concepts in mind let us turn now to the changes which occurred in the religious orders between 1962 and 1978.

CHANGE IN THE ORDERS

The Orders entered the 1960's as highly structured hierarchical organisations. The Sisters took vows of obedience, and while this was ultimately a vow of obedience to the will of God, it was understood that God's will was made known through one's superiors and the rules of the Order. As one Sister said, the formation or training program was one of inculcating pious practices. Similarly, until the 60's much in the

teacher's training emphasised correct practice, set methodologies for teaching a well established curriculum. These worked because they fitted social and organisational expectations. It was a simpler world, one with well known, well established practices and values supposedly shared by all. The documents of the Orders General Chapter (council) meetings addressed themselves to changes of detail: the larger issues were not discussed; there was no need as agreement on these was taken for granted. In fact, interviews showed that this was not so. Some disquiet was felt from the 50's onward, although open questioning was not common until the late 60's.

The following two anecdotes contrast attitudes to obedience and authority, then and now. The first comes from a fifty year old Sister. On a January day in 1938 when the temperature was above 100°F. her novice mistress told her to go out into the garden and plant a tulip bulb. In those days the novices wore dark serge habits throughout the year, but despite her discomfort she did it. The next day in similar conditions she was told to go out and water the bulb. In her mind the novice questioned the sense of it all, but she obeyed 'Mother'. The purpose of the exercise was to teach unquestioning obedience to those in authority. The other incident occurred in 1978 and tells of a Provincial, the head of one of our groups, who was perturbed by the laziness of a novice. She decided to discuss her concerns with the girl. At the conclusion of the ensuing conversation the novice said, "You're spot on Elizabeth, I'm glad you spoke to me about it!". The purpose of that exercise was to assist the development of a responsible person living in community.

Both stories illustrate extremes but they none the less point to the ethos of the 30's and the ethos of the late 70's. The nuns with all their quaint habits and cloistered existence typified the insularity of most social institutions until the 1960's. Our society accepted the authority of various institutions, and trusted them to fulfil particular social functions. Roles and functions of both individuals and institutions were well defined and respected. Institutions ran on hierarchical lines, and any reading of personal files in the education department would show that it was not meaningless to sign "your obedient servant" on letters to the department until the late 40's.

Inasmuch as the Sisters were assimilated into the structured hierarchical society in which they were obedient to rules, regulations and superiors, they remained dependent, without responsibility and obedient to external regulations like children, but there were always some free spirits who, while living within the organisational parameters, saw beyond the rules to the essential principles of religious life. Some of these women were novice mistresses in the 1950's, and much readiness for change can be attributed to their influence.

It was the wisdom, or pragmatism of Vatican II to realise that while such a work force may have been effective and efficient in pursuing the tasks of the Church in the past, it was no longer adequate if the Church was to address the needs of a complex and rapidly changing society. Complexity, plurality and change required people who could act not by fixed practices and minutely regulated detail but according to well understood,

internalised principles and values which could be expressed in a variety of ways appropriate to particular situations.

The Orders were not given a choice - they were told to adapt and renew, and they were given a preliminary timetable for getting the process under way, to ensure that they actually did something. This is a stage which education departments also appear to have passed through as the responsible Federal and State bodies have recognised the necessity of changing school systems and curricula to meet the requirements of a complex pluralistic technological society. But it is fascinating to observe how people can rationalise and reduce the amount of change required.

The Orders accepted the command to adapt and set about reviewing their practices using guidelines given to them by the Vatican. In these they were told to examine their origins, the purposes for which they were founded and the particular charisma of their foundress or founder. This process helped them to separate those aspects of their life and work which were essential from those which were anachronistic accretions of time, in a word, to distinguish between means and ends, values and structures. While guidelines gave a predominant role to the General Chapters of each Order, it was stated that their duty would not be discharged merely by legislation, but change would require the co-operation of all members by a renewal of their personal lives, by involvement in preparation for council meetings, and in the implementation of changed practices afterwards. Vatican II recognised that if real change was to be achieved it must be attitudinal as well as structural. All this will be fairly familiar to those skilled in techniques of management, but the Vatican Fathers threw in a couple of basic principles for good measure. The first, the principle of subsidiarity, required the delegation of authority so that each Sister in an Order became responsible for decisions and actions within her area of competence. This emphasises as a first priority the responsibility of each Nun and each community to contribute to the life of the Order at her optimal level of ability. In its most radical form it limits the power of those in higher authority positions, making them facilitators and monitors rather than directors of activity. In a sense the lower echelons delegate authority upward, that is, they entrust to those above them the responsibility to provide conditions and circumstances which will enable the worker to give her optimal performance.

The second principle was that of respect for the dignity of each individual. This principle proved to be the essential element in enabling Sisters to cope with stress. In most cases it took about seven years for the implications of these principles to be grasped by the general membership. When they were understood real attitudinal change began. The response to official recognition of individual worth appears to have been an acceptance of personal responsibility for helping to shape change in the Order.

It should be noted that neither of these principles was really new. In some Orders they were embedded in the constitutions for centuries, but the bureaucratic procedures of many decades, and the canonisation of law had led to personal responsibility and dignity being overwhelmed by routine and regulation. All the Orders passed through similar stages of

change though some moved into change more quickly than others because they were better prepared, and some for reasons of size and style of government have found some stages more difficult than others. But over about 15 years all have managed a significant shift from being organizations in which members expected to be "other directed" to becoming organizations of inner directed people working by consensus in a collegial manner.

These processes have clear significance in relation to issues of recurrent education because in the inservice interviews it became apparent that, without appropriate motivation and professional responsibility, enforced additional study or experience will not be used optimally, and sometimes not at all by teachers.

Vatican II carefully differentiated between adaptation which involved modification of existing structures and practices, and renewal which implied revitalization of the organisation and individuals in it. Once an Order began the process of change it was obvious that one was not possible without the other. Structures and practices could not be altered without causing conflict, bewilderment and pain. To assuage these problems it was necessary to begin a fundamental review of the purpose and meaning of the Order's life and work. Those individuals who caught a vision of what it meant for the Church to address the problems of the modern world saw the necessity to reform the old structures and strictures which limited appropriate action.

THE PROCESSES OF CHANGE

Perhaps the clearest message to emerge from this study, because it relates to the experience of personal stress, is that the process of achieving change was as important as the end result, because it shaped the end result. To begin with, change was largely managed from above, and it was all adaptive. Both the directives from the Vatican Council and changes in Australian society, particularly those affecting schools, meant that it was impossible for the Orders to continue their former lifestyle. To be adequate as teachers they had to have more contact with the world; inservice conferences, part-time study, changed curricula with more excursions meant the end of cloistered seclusion and every sister being there for evening community rituals. Later nights made it more difficult to rise by 5.30 in the morning. For years the Superiors gave dispensations, and allowed exceptions before necessity forced the groups to question the practicability of trying to continue old ways. Similarly, it was necessity and practicality which led to a review of clothing styles. In one Order, (rather resistant to change), the veil had to be altered because Sisters could not get driving licences while they were effectively blinkered from side vision by the drapes of their veils. New work and the need for greater mobility demanded that Sisters drive cars.

The need for change was not uniformly recognized. Sisters who were settled in religious life, living in happy, busy convents, preoccupied with running successful schools were sheltered from the problems experienced or perceived by others. Sisters who had travelled overseas or read more widely were aware of the movements of change and the reasons behind them, but the structured, busy life of convents did not encourage

discussion of such matters. One consistent and fascinating finding was the apparent difference in expectations regarding authority and obedience amongst the younger nuns who entered after 1960. One remarked that she had been brought up to question things and think for herself, by her parents and teachers, and she simply continued to do so. For these young women any training contrary to such "commonsense" was ignored. They were ready to grasp opportunities for change as they were given them; in fact they entered expecting change.

By the late 60's, claiming the principle of subsidiarity, some groups in the Order which moved most quickly into change began to experiment both with appropriate dress and less regulated daily schedules. This was distressing to more conservative Sisters; it undermined many of their assumptions of what it meant to be a Nun. More exposure to the outside world, frustration at the slowness of change, and more liberal attitudes to leaving the religious life meant that some well established Sisters chose to leave the Orders. When these were people who held responsible positions and were admired by others, it was very unsettling to their peers. In the first years of change, 'leaving' was accomplished quietly and those who remained were left puzzled and confused.

Many of the new entrants stayed only a few years and then left. The mid to late 60's were years of large intakes and often more than half left within a few years; they were also years when many students dropped out of tertiary study, and many moved around in business and banking cadetships, but the Sisters did not know this, and believed that the fault must lie in the way they conducted their lives. These were years of turmoil, uncertainty and self doubt.

The leadership realized that there was a need for better communication within the Orders. When everyone did the same thing at the same time in the same ways, then there was little to be communicated, but once this pattern was disturbed, members needed to be reassured about the legitimacy of various activities. From the mid 60's onwards the Mothers General of the Orders, and the local Provincials, began regular newsletters to the Conventants. Until the early 70's these had an informative, caring, but distinctly maternal tone; the Sisters were encouraged but they were also remonstrated with. After this time the new senior officers in the Orders, who were no longer addressed as Mother, wrote letters which addressed the Sisters as equals, enlisting their support and co-operation and informing them of events and ideas. The Order which entered change most quickly developed several vehicles for communication, annual reports mainly addressed to outsiders, and an internal magazine which carried articles about Sisters' various activities, letters from those working in distant places, and reports.

But legislating for adaptation and the provision of more information did not ensure change at the local level. Often the Sisters filled in questionnaires about their preferences, but the tabulation of the results did not meet the personal desires or anxieties of the respondents. Others who wanted change desperately sent in letters, but getting no response were left wondering what their superiors thought of them, and whether they had blundered.

Working with well qualified lay teachers many became anxious that they were inadequately trained and applied for permission to do further study. In fact, from the interviews it appears that in the late 60's one solution to an unhappy convent situation was to escape it by engaging in part-time study.

One of the most significant changes occurred in the composition of the decision making bodies of the Orders. Until this time the leadership tended to replace themselves with like minded people, a pattern typical of other organizations. In one province the Irish group dominated and no Australian born sister became Provincial until the 1950's. The Vatican directives required wider consultation and at the Special General Chapters required by the Vatican, the Orders included younger Sisters as Chapter delegates. In some cases Mothers General acted contrary to their own conservative judgements to meet the requirements for consultation and representation. The effects of wider representation appear to have been as much psychological as legislative as younger sisters experienced responsibility and knew themselves to be trusted and respected. The Sisters had to learn how to handle both change and the criticism they received from others who did not want to see any diversity.

Certainly there was some liberalising legislation but strangely many of the new freedoms allowed to the Sisters were not used by them. The ability to use opportunities seemed to wait on changed motivation and this came only as expectations and attitudes altered. At the close of the initial phase of change the situation was complex and confused. The leadership recognised the need for changes but were often too anxious about possible effects to allow radical change. There were excellent documents on the need and basis for change prepared for Chapter meetings and which were widely circulated. The disturbed membership happily grasped "commonsense" adaptations. The Sisters were divided between those who clung to old practices for security and because they continued to gain fulfilment through them; those who felt distant from the decisions and simply pursued their own lives using new freedoms as they came; those who became frustrated with the slowness of change and left; and those who worked to alter the structure and influence the shape of change. During an interview, one quiet, self effacing Sister confessed that she had favoured change, and did her bit by letting her hair show.

CONSULTATION AND PARTICIPATION

The Orders used the processes of consultation and participation to overcome these difficulties. In the earlier period they tried to involve the membership by circulating information, and using questionnaires, but these were passive forms of involvement. The conflict and misunderstandings in the convents showed how easy it was for Sisters to interpret the same information in quite different ways; some Sisters seemed to prefer not to know, or could not 'hear'.

Meetings and face to face discussion seemed to be the solution. There followed years when some Sisters got a lot of knitting done and others gained in confidence and satisfaction from discussing things through. Many sisters got tired of going to meetings, but it was interesting in the interviews to find Sisters who had not spoken at those meetings and resented the efforts to make them speak, who nonetheless identified with

particular points of view which had been put, and felt that they had been represented. Like the Sister who let her hair show, passive people judged their participation differently to active people. Women who had experienced years of disciplined living, with an emphasis on silence and little opportunity for discussion, took a long time to gain new skills and confidence.

Two things improved the dialogue process: the first was focussing on goals and values, the second the use of facilitators, usually outsiders, skilled in group dynamics, who helped the Sisters to hear one another.

One of the requirements of the Vatican decrees was that the Orders should develop simplified (yet distinctive) new constitutions. Commissions were set up to produce papers on the major issues, and their work became the focus for general discussion. Often members of commissions would consult Sisters individually, so as to get a feeling for "grass roots" attitudes. Outside facilitators skilled in group dynamics were greatly appreciated for the way they enabled the Sisters to hear one another. Often they could help them clarify those essential goals they held in common so that Sisters who were poles apart on superficial issues might find that they had much in common, and tolerate their different ways of achieving the same end.

Gradually people came to understand each other better and achieved consensus about the basis on which decisions could be made. At the same time the procedures for allocating work altered. Whereas in the past obedience meant doing what you were told to do where you were sent to do it, now the individual needs and skills of the Sisters were given more consideration. To some extent Sisters had previously been perceived as interchangeable work units; now the principle of human dignity demanded that they be considered as individuals with unique abilities. Sisters were consulted by the Provincial or Councillors before appointments were made to new schools or convents. This change was assisted by the rapid diversification of specialist tasks in schools, as well as the Vatican II call to "read the signs of the times". Some Sisters studied educational administration to become better principals, others left the classroom to become librarians, others school counsellors, and some changed between primary and secondary teaching. Because of the new factor of appointing lay teachers, this consultation had to take place months in advance which had the psychological advantage of giving Sisters time to adjust to the idea of moving.

In interview one Sister commented, "The essence of what we wanted was individuality, but if the majority are not at ease with this, then you don't have the freedom to enter individuality". Consultation and participation assisted the process of personalising the Order. The Sisters felt that they were known by those whom they entrusted to plan for the Order, and they knew and appreciated each other better. Gradually over a span of years they gained the freedom to enter into individuality.

More choice was given to the Sisters in types of spiritual retreats. These had been a form of compulsory "inservice" which for some Sisters had become a perfunctory exercise. In the new climate, with a variety of retreats to choose from the Sisters looked forward to the break from busy

work and the opportunity for quiet reflection and learning. This time to think about their lives and activities usually improved their performance and it certainly made them excellent and candid respondents for a stress and coping study.

This period was also one of intensive academic upgrading. Some of our groups had always had a dedication to educational excellence but they had pursued this through workshops and lectures within their community. By the 70's the Sisters were travelling hither and yon attending various courses at a number of Universities and Colleges of Advanced Education, and some did further theological studies. Most reported that they learnt little in their teaching studies, but all reported personal enrichment through a broadening of knowledge and wider social contacts. These opportunities need emphasising because they contributed to the changed view of self and growth of self confidence amongst the Sisters. They came to respect themselves and they expected to be respected by others.

During the period further changes were made to give all Sisters a voice in the selection of Superiors, Provincial Councillors and the Provincial, though not necessarily a direct vote; as a result a new style of leader emerged. The Sisters had chosen people who have considerable ability in facilitating communication and participation, have great empathy with people, and are quite open about their own limitations.

TRUST AND RESPONSIBILITY

This is the stage most of the groups are now consolidating. The Order which has progressed furthest through change has clearly developed consensus on where it is going, has high morale, and has attracted new members. They have a great tolerance for very diverse activities and life styles amongst the members. There is evidence that they have transferred their practices of participation and consultation to their schools with positive advantages for staff development and parent and student involvement. There are still some Sisters who are not completely happy with change, but on the whole, as one Sister observed, "We have come to think Province", that is, they see themselves as individuals in the context of the life and work of the whole group.

Not all the groups have reached this stage. One Sister from another group commented recently, "We need to know who we are before we can decide where we are going". There are people who, given individual freedom, have exploited their situation at the expense of others, and do not pull their weight in community. Some are still bitter at the way they were treated in the past, but generally the Sisters recognise their responsibility to work these matters through.

It is evident in all groups that while meetings continue, there are less of them, and they have a different style. There are Provincial Days which bring all the Sisters together. Because they live in smaller, scattered communities, with diverse jobs, these meetings provide opportunities to share matters which concern everybody and show interest and support for one another. At local level the meetings are smaller and purposeful, organised around specific tasks and concerns. More people are now willing to speak in meetings. In this study the writer became aware that although she had always assumed her right to speak in

meetings, the majority of the Sisters, and remember most of them were teachers, assumed the opposite; they did not expect to speak. Learning to voice their opinions has been a real achievement. This development has been assisted by the personal encouragement given by superiors, structures which gave people responsibilities on which to report, and the support and interest of their peers.

The old notion of supervision has gone from the Orders. The well informed and better educated membership have helped to shape the principles which guide their religious life, and they are expected to decide responsibly for themselves using those guidelines. Developing appropriate life styles is a continuing process which allows for individual growth and change, and community responsibility.

Authority remains, but in structures which enhance personal responsibility rather than the imposing of institutional norms. Often when speaking to senior bureaucrats about this study they are alarmed that worker anarchy may be being promoted. This is far from the truth. When the old structures proved inadequate the Orders went through a stage of structural review. It was a period of some confusion about practices and expectations, but by the end they had accommodated to the modern world with its demands for respect and responsibility for individuals. The Sisters themselves are developing as people as they help to create more human and appropriate structures. They want and need these new structures because it saves a lot of time and energy to have large parts of the world which one shares with others taken for granted. Constant negotiation and renegotiation of self with others is very exhausting. Authority operates to sustain the structures which enable the Sisters to get on with the work of the Order. The Orders continue to serve the Church, which is now seen as the members, rather than the rulers.

INDIVIDUAL STRESS

Selye, who was the originator and undoubtedly remains the doyen of stress research, distinguished between stress and eustress.¹² The common use of the term stress is for distress which is debilitating, while eustress is exhilarating. Both show the same physiological symptoms. It seems that the experience of stress and eustress is associated with being in problematic situations in which one's commitment to views about self and social institutions is challenged and has to be resolved. One way of avoiding unpleasant stress is to distance oneself from such commitments to institutions. People who are frustrated by organisational systems from resolving problematic situations may also distance themselves. This distancing or negating of commitments to organisations has a similarity to the states of alienation and anomie.

The research appears to show how under the old structures and authority the Sisters generally defined themselves by identifying with roles and meeting clear expectations. Many reflecting back on their experiences indicated that they had been stressed when they were unable to meet such expectations, and felt themselves to be inadequate. They did not need a lot of personal interaction for support because the roles and routines gave shape and re-assurance to their lives. Sisters who were shifted from school to school after one year of service were often demoralised

because they thought they must be at fault in some way. The system did not allow for consultation or explanation. Losing confidence in one's ability then often did lead to a worsened performance.

Surprisingly few reported being stressed by the larger classes, often of 60 or more children, which they taught, though they said they were exhausted by the end of term. The Sisters who did report stress in these circumstances were women who felt that, because they were unable to control the large numbers, they resorted to actions of verbal or physical violence which were contrary to their image of themselves. "How could I teach the love of Christ when I was being so unloving?"

Another common stress in this period was due to the insensitivity of some Superiors: Sisters' anxieties and concerns were sometimes not heard, sometimes arbitrarily denied as illegitimate. Finally there was the stress which came from not being trusted or appreciated and which they felt when subjected to constant supervision or carping criticisms in school or convent. In these circumstances the Sisters needed personal reassurance from others but the structures did not allow time or opportunity for personal interaction.

The period of consultation and participation was important in resolving stress because the Sisters were involved in shaping the structures with which they had identified themselves.

The process helped them move from identification with specific roles and actions, to identifying with central values by which the self could be shaped, that is, from the self statement, "I am a Nun, Nuns do X, Y and Z", to "I am a person who believes in, I express this by belonging to the Order of Sisters of".

Stress has not disappeared as a result of consultation and participation. The Sisters would say that in many ways their situation is more stressful, but in a context of continuing change they have learnt to live with uncertainty. Modern people have a lot more choices and a lot more pressures upon them. Personalising the Orders made it possible for the Sisters to gain and give support and reassurance to one another, and participative structures have allowed them to influence their situation and gain some sense of control. Attaching to principles rather than specific practices has given them a wider choice of appropriate actions. But when people are not sure that what they are doing each day is correct because it fulfils expectations and role requirements they need more opportunities to discuss and gain support and approval from peers. Time to discuss and reflect is vital in coping with change.

While initially many Sisters were reluctant to take on responsibility or be accountable for the choices they made, in the interviews they all reported great pleasure at the personal growth they had experienced. It was very satisfying to cope with problems successfully, to manage new experiences, to see the school improve, to experience vitality and a sense of purpose in one's community. Even knowing that one can and must accept responsibility for something which went hopelessly wrong, yet still be supported by the group, gives a growth experience. Stress continues but for many it is Selye's more positive eustress, which promotes growth and confidence.

One group who are experiencing more stress of an exhausting nature are the new leaders, who are involved in much more personal interaction now than under the old system. They are responsible for the maintenance of a system which meets both the needs of members and organizational goals. This requires a lot of negotiation with people whose personal potential has to be related to system needs. They often have to make hard decisions. They have found it helpful to have conferences of Superiors, where they share problems, failures and successes; and they also need the support of small but broadly representative councils. A better informed membership understands the constraints upon their leaders and is less demanding and more supportive. Nevertheless it is reasonable to limit the period in which a person is expected to bear such a load.

IMPLICATIONS FOR RECURRENT EDUCATION

Let us look again at the issues raised in "The Age". Firstly, education and the teaching role have changed greatly; secondly, well informed professionals who care about their work are no longer prepared to blindly obey the authority of administrators; thirdly, there is a general lack of trust between providers and users of educational services.

In this situation teachers and administrators have been expressing frustration and stress for at least a decade. There are many problematic situations, diverse world views and a lack of consensus on appropriate philosophies and goals. A plethora of excellent statements on the aims of education is circulating, and departmental officers have produced enlightened policy statements. Some have tried fixing physical structures and, while it may have improved conditions, it did not revitalise the system. Some have tried some adaptation of structures with regionalization and greater autonomy for schools, but the systems remain sluggish. For some years now inservice education has served as a way of fixing the teachers but this has not achieved any significant renewal.

In the present research it was found that inservice had offered teachers opportunities to upgrade skills and qualifications, to keep in touch with "the latest" in their rapidly changing fields. However, teachers had not always appreciated or used these opportunities, possibly because much which was offered as inservice training appeared to undermine their self-respect. While many enjoyed increasing their professional competence, they were frustrated by a lack of professional commitment at staff level for the overall development of the school. They realized the necessity of group competence for individual effort to be effective.

Together with preservice education, inservice programs have been product-oriented, with insufficient consideration given to the dynamics of the process. Thus, much recent teacher education has neglected essential elements of socialising students into the profession, and inservice has neglected fundamental precepts of adult education such as appreciating the skills, insights and experiences which participants bring to a course and allowing for a large component of self-initiated learning. In the main, programs have been aimed at upgrading individuals. With the exception of induction programs, the opportunities offered have taken little account of the differing stages of personal and professional development already achieved by the teachers involved. This

has meant that teachers often felt "put down" by the process, despite the excellence of the program.

Teachers emphasized the need for inservice opportunities as staff groups, they appreciated the chance to understand each other better, and to reach a consensus on philosophy and goals which enabled them to improve the context in which they work. While the outcome of such a process can be important in communicating to parents what the school is trying to achieve, and developing parental support for such goals, the major benefit seems to be to the staff. Through the discussions and work groups, teachers give each other professional support and develop a commitment to the school and its charter.

Using the commitment theory as a tool of analysis, it can be seen that teachers avoid stress by distancing themselves from the confusion and frustration inherent in many schools at present. Bureaucratic procedures have depersonalised the school system, and processes which recognise the personal dignity and professional competence of each teacher are required. Such processes could be part of a general move to reach consensus in each school on its essential aims and philosophy. (Indeed some schools which have already entered into such processes report an improvement in staff morale and commitment). Involving the school community in the process improves relationships between administrators, teachers, students and parents which are relevant to commitment because it shows participants that others care and appreciate that work is well done. Giving schools greater control of their budgets would enhance trust and responsibility in the system.

Experience of working with and listening to young graduates indicates that, like the younger Sisters, they have different assumptions about the nature of authority. They expect to be respected as individuals, and they want to make a responsible contribution to their organizations. After all, they have been socialized by a school system which for at least twenty years has endeavoured to individualise education and encourage students to think critically and creatively. Why, then, does it come as a surprise that they are frustrated by institutions which treat them as work units and exclude them from decision making on issues which affect them and the enterprise?

Opportunities for recurrent education offer a parallel to the retreats offered to the Sisters, but not if they are a hit or miss operation. Once the life of the Order (and the Sisters' lives) showed signs of renewal, retreats became a vital opportunity for continued development and an essential annual experience.

It should also be noted that a renewed system which provides for workers to take responsibility requires a different style of leadership. Teachers should be given some voice in nominating people they trust and respect. Leaders who were chosen by the Sisters and facilitated processes of change were marked more by characteristics of humility and humanity than extrovert self confidence or bureaucratic legalism. Because these leaders were humble about their own abilities, they were able to utilise the complementary abilities of others in the Orders. It seems a special form of giftedness to enable others to feel needed, wanted and useful, and to channel enthusiasm and ability in such way that

all group members grow in confidence. Such people seem able to engender within an organization the element of trust which is necessary when much is altering or totally unknown.

Reading through the Sisters' documents revealed references from 1972 onward to increasing disillusionment with schools and education. Many Sisters who wanted to contribute to a better society left teaching because they believed schools could do nothing but perpetuate existing conditions. There were also teachers equally disillusioned about the social significance of their work. This is not to argue that it is the right of educators to dictate the shape of society, but to endorse the legitimate role of every citizen to use his or her talents to contribute to the improvement of society. There is evidence that schools help to shape the expectations and attitudes of students. Schools in which trust, personal dignity and corporate responsibility are practised will improve the quality of educational experience and the quality of Australian life.

While opportunities for recurrent education for teachers have an important place, they should be considered in the context of the profound problems but great opportunities to which renewal of the school community is the key.

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RECURRENT EDUCATION FOR TEACHERS :
A KNOWLEDGE UTILISATION APPROACH

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INTRODUCTION

The recent Report of the National Enquiry into Teacher Education (1980, p.68) "firmly endorses" the concept that teacher development "is a continuous process encompassing preservice preparation, induction into the teaching profession and inservice education." While one welcomes this endorsement, one may also feel that it merely echoes the conventional wisdom because, in other places, notably the U.S., Canada and Europe, a great deal more research about how such concepts can be made operational realities has been extant for some time. For this reason, a major theme of the present paper is an attempt to synthesise some of this research, for it is clear that in the inservice education of teachers there is a widening gap between knowledge production and knowledge utilisation. Without being too cynical, one may also feel that the gulf between the rhetoric of the many reports and enquiries into education in Australia and the operational reality epitomises this widening gap. To bridge this gap, this paper argues that an explicitly interventionist social policy model relating to the recurrent education of teachers is now necessary.

Opposition to such a policy stems partly from misunderstanding but also, and very properly, from those who fear the development in this country of what Bertram Gross, in a memorable phrase, has called "friendly fascism." This is where a benign and friendly regime tells people kindly but very firmly what is good for them. However, to suggest that the only alternative to the traditional is a sort of crypto-fascist social engineering is to polarise and obscure the real point. This point is that utilising what Benne and Chin (Bennis, Benne and Chin, 1969) have called a "normative re-educative" approach to social change offers a feasible and attractive alternative. It is emphasised that this approach or model undergirds the social hypotheses to be discussed in this paper.

The Intervention Strategy and Social Goals. The intervention strategy proposed involves the training and deployment of what have been termed "knowledge linkers." The social goals which it is hoped may be better achieved as a result of this strategy are:

- (a) making the recurrent education system more accessible to the under-educated and specific target populations not presently well served;

* The assistance of Ms Margaret Johnston in reviewing the literature associated with this paper is gratefully acknowledged.

- (b) making the continuing education system more responsive to the needs of all teachers and, in particular, to the needs of those not presently well served;
- (c) making the recurrent education system more flexible in its modes of delivery and service; and
- (d) using human linkages as the basis for an on-going and regularly updated communication system between the providers of recurrent education and the consumers of their programs - individual teachers.

In sum, the aim of this strategy is to transform the possibility of personal growth and development through a variety of flexibly designed and responsive recurrent education programs into a reality equally available to all teachers. Theories, concepts and research findings which appear to have some bearing on the role of the knowledge linker and the critical concept of knowledge utilisation follow.

An Information Exchange System. At present most suppliers of recurrent education make decisions about providing programs on the basis of some data and a lot of cash register experience relating to the potential clientele in the area or region served. To improve the supply of appropriate programs, to extend present practice and to really match and to continue to match client interests and needs, they will tell you without any prompting that they need more data. On the other hand, a client wishing to begin a learning project needs to know where, when, how much, for how long and how frequently a program or resource is available, plus many other context-specific details. At first glance, then, it would seem that a simple information exchange system is needed. But this implies that people follow their rational self-interest once this is revealed to them. As suggested earlier, the approach taken here is based not on the rational-empirical model, but on the normative re-educative. Without debating the merits and demerits of these models, we shall see that information exchanges have been shown to be inadequate because changes in people involve changes in normative orientations, in attitudes, values and skills as well as in relationships, and not just changes in knowledge, information or intellectual rationales (Bennis, Benne and Chin, 1969, p. 34).

INFORMATION, KNOWLEDGE AND KNOWLEDGE UTILISATION

It is important at this point to distinguish between the following terms: information, knowledge and knowledge utilisation. Information is here used to mean the appropriate specifications we need in order to think about anything. We might note in passing that most of us in the world of the well educated are literally swamped with information, most of which we squander or ignore.

This is because an addition to a human's knowledge (as distinct from human knowledge) takes place when information is actively integrated and absorbed into an existing stock of knowledge with a resultant increment in understanding. Yet much knowledge is not used even when so absorbed. Information may be acquired, even actively sought, understanding may be enhanced, but for a host of human (and, *ipso facto*, not necessarily rational) reasons, no action based upon the new knowledge may follow.

Alternatively, as indeed happens very often, actions based upon the preceding state of awareness and understanding continue to be taken despite the new knowledge. This is why a third term, knowledge utilisation, is needed. It refers to the implementation of new actions or the modification of behaviour because of new knowledge gained from information or data. Finally, it is important to emphasise again that information (used here synonymously with data) is inert. It requires a human actor to absorb and use it.

This semantic digression has been necessary because these pallid verbal symbols are the referents for real and urgent problems facing modern, and perhaps even more, modernising societies. These urgent problems arise in part from the exponential growth in the rate of new knowledge but even more from our alarmed and belated recognition that making use of the knowledge and information already available is enormously difficult. Solo (1967) has stated this problem incisively in these words:

Mark it well, the communication of new ideas, new conceptions, new inventions, new understandings, new ways of doing things between individuals fixed in their ways and intent upon their separate objectives is difficult and rare ... Beyond the barriers that separate individual from individual, it must cross those which set apart groups and communities.

Knowledge Utilisation and Recurrent Education. As might be anticipated, theorists have become aware of the ever-widening gap between what we know and what we do. The problem addressed in this paper has to do with the application of some of the theory to recurrent education for teachers. An operational definition is therefore in order. As used here, knowledge utilisation applies to (1) decisions taken by an individual teacher to commit or not to commit time and resources to some form of continuing education activity or practice, and (2) decisions taken by educational providers to commit or not to commit time and resources to some form of recurrent education offering, where in each case the decision to act is based on an optimum knowledge of supply and demand. It will be clear that utilisation in the special sense we have adopted is Janus-like - it has two faces depending upon whether we adopt the perspective of the client or the teacher educator. In this paper the emphasis will be on the client or individual teacher, but it will be seen that a two-way communication link via a human linker implies that action is required from both. Research findings and concepts deriving from a number of disciplines may be drawn upon in building a more complete understanding of knowledge utilisation and the elements of it with which we must be concerned in developing an effective intervention strategy. Communication theory offers a pertinent starting point.

COMMUNICATION THEORY

Using a well-known formulation deriving from communication theory, we can explore and elaborate upon a two-way communication model. The formula: "Who says what to whom by what channel to what effect and for what purpose?" (Smith, Lasswell and Casey, 1946) points to six factors associated with every act of communication. But reliance on an inert channel without a human link to supplement it has been proven ineffective. This is why communication is no longer thought of as the

mere dissemination of information. Science and communication technology have provided tools which far outstrip our human capacities for using new information which they make available.

Precisely because this problem is now widely recognised, contemporary communication theorists are turning increasingly to the process of communication. As summarised by Richard Ripple, views have changed from an emphasis on the interactive to the intra-active and now to the transactive. (Ripple, 1974) Transactive means involvement in interpersonal interaction toward the end of obtaining mutual intra-personal meanings or understandings. It also returns the emphasis in communication theory to the human and away from the mechanical, and reflects our painfully acquired awareness of the differences between an information system and a communication system.

Systems and Communication Theory: Forging Links. Using insights and concepts from systems theory and communications theory, a barrier may be thought of (following Havelock and Guskin, 1969) as something that stops or tends to stop messages, as well as a geographical, conceptual or physical limitation.

It needs to be emphasised that most functioning systems are not completely encompassed by barriers. Closed systems are in fact rare by definition since a system needs to import something from outside in order not to become subject to what Katz and Kahn (1966) have termed "negative entropy." In other words, most systems are at least partially open - there are some breaks in the circle - so that some vitalizing and energizing element can be imported from the impinging environment to fuel the functioning system, and also so that generated outputs from the system can be discharged.

But the cogency of general systems theory for our purposes is perhaps best understood when it is recognised that a man can be conceived as a system independent of and yet dependent on other systems in his environment. A further implication is that any adult, as a human system, is also a sub-system in a series of larger social systems (work group, neighbourhood, community, region, nation). Putting all this together with the previous discussion on communication it may be seen that communication, while it is a transactive process between human beings, is also a linking of systems through human beings.

Systems and communication theory are further compatible not only in terms of inputs, throughputs (or process) and outputs but also in terms of feedback and subsequent reactive responses. In addition, both theories handle different levels of context comfortably. In both, as Havelock and his associates (1969) suggest, it is possible to think of the systems model and the communication model at the intrapsychic level (i.e. what goes on inside a person's head), at the interpersonal level, at the inter-institutional level, at the social system level and at the inter-social system level.

Communication theory as discussed here would suggest that a transactive process between humans needs to be developed to facilitate knowledge utilization. But since a system is a boundary maintaining entity, support is growing for the notion that people with specifically "boundary

spanning" or linking roles are necessary. Rather than merely hope that system boundaries will be permeable and will allow communication, system designers now deliberately build in these linkage roles, arguing that persons who have been specifically trained as specialists in the process of linkage and communication can effectively bridge the gap between systems. From studies in organisational theory and practice and from group dynamics we know that by virtue of the many roles that each adult has, a very large number of barriers or boundaries have to be crossed in the act of communication. Our task, therefore, seems prodigiously difficult when one recalls that our purpose is to try to describe a knowledge utilisation system that can be applied usefully in a total social system. On the other hand, we can take heart from the fact that there are several highly successful knowledge utilisation systems already in existence. In addition, a great number of research studies have been done in various fields on some important aspects of the general problem, and we now know a great deal about linkage roles.

As a highly successful working model the Co-operative Extension network as associated with Cornell and other land grant colleges in the United States may be cited. There are other examples deriving from the industrial world where firms have developed the vocational role of the "systems engineer" charged with the specific task of making sure that research findings are efficiently translated into product design, marketing strategies and the like. This is because productivity and commercial viability both have come to depend on getting new knowledge to clients as well as from them.

Also, there is a large body of literature deriving from half a dozen social science areas which may be loosely grouped under the rubric of "diffusion" studies. These studies have to do with the adoption of innovations of various kinds, and many of them are relevant to the problem of knowledge utilisation as we have defined it here. It will be recalled that we used the term utilisation to mean decisions taken by a client or a provider to commit time and resources to a program of continuing education. In this sense knowledge utilisation is like adoption, or acceptance and implementation, as these terms are used in the "diffusion" literature. For example, the following findings clearly appear to relate to the problem of knowledge utilisation and linkage roles:

1. One of the early sociologists, Tarde (1903), coined the term "opinion leader" to describe the particularly influential person who is looked to as an exemplar and whose behaviour is imitated by others. This suggests that where large groups exist the identification and training of such people could prove a singularly useful strategy in promoting continuing education opportunities to client groups.
2. Following Tarde, Bowers (1938) noted that early adopters could often be reached by the media whereas later adopters could best be induced to adopt an innovation by face-to-face communication. If this finding were to be true in the continuing education context, it would seem that there is a large potential market to be tapped as there appears to be little evidence that suppliers of continuing education have utilised a face-to-face situation.

3. Ryan and Gross (1943) in their well known study of the diffusion of hybrid seed corn identified three stages of the adoption process. These were (a) awareness, (b) trial, and (c) adoption. A breakdown into these three processes may be of importance in designing an intervention system for teacher-learners.
4. The same study showed that while change agents and media were important influences on early adopters, later adopters tended to wait and see what the neighbours did. This finding reinforces the notion of finding natural opinion leaders and exploiting their support.
5. The evidence deriving from the well known studies of Mayo (1945) and Roethlisberger and Dickson (1946) suggest that informal membership of sentient groups may be of vital importance. The important gains that might accrue if a person inside the group could be used as a primary contact are stressed.
6. There is also a clear need to follow the example set by the Commission on Non-Traditional Study (1973) in being prepared to explore alternative modes of continuing education delivery. To innovate successfully might mean discovering alternative forms of delivery, and comparing the success of different modes of presentation with different types of clients.
7. The degree of exposure of client groups to various forms of media is another factor. Attempts to discover the best method of reaching particular groups should continue, but the evidence seems to point towards a need for transactive communication rather than data saturation.

Planned Change. A great deal of work has also been done in relation to planned change as distinct from unplanned change on the one hand and homeostatic or adjustment change on the other. Here Lippitt's (1969) statement of planned change in a systems context is of special interest in that he emphasises two emergent themes: knowledge utilisation and what he calls a renewal stimulator. Planned change, he says:

can be defined as a conscious, deliberate and collaborative effort to improve the operations of a system ... through the utilisation of knowledge. It usually involves both a renewal stimulator and some kind of organisation, which are brought together to solve a problem or to plan and attain an improved state of functioning...

Though Lippitt's thesis is stated in terms of organisation renewal, it is not stretching his ideas too far to suggest that his term "renewal stimulator" is not unlike Michael's term "boundary spanner", or our term "knowledge linker." Each is clearly a species of the genus "change agent."

Thus from a variety of research perspectives and traditions there is an emergent consensus about the pivotal role of a human link between system parts where any form of planned change is required.

THE TECHNOLOGICAL ALTERNATIVE

However, there are still those who cling to the idea that technological solutions to the problems we have been raising are at hand. In recent years protagonists of data banks and computer aided decision-making and retrieval systems have promised minor miracles. Yet in 1972, Westin, after reviewing some of the exaggerated promises made by the hardware enthusiasts for computer assisted information systems, concluded, "No data bank has been found in civilian agencies of city, country, state or federal government that is in fact delivering on such promises ..." What now seems abundantly clear is that like other technological innovations that have been lauded unrealistically, computer technology, while it is an aid to human judgement, is not a replacement for it.

In October, 1973, the writer visited Toronto, Canada, to examine the computer based directory of continuing education programs and resources which had been produced in that city for the whole metropolitan area. It was an impressive and sophisticated system of information production. But what was equally clear was that despite the speed, efficiency and accuracy of the mechanical data handling process, knowledge linkers - human knowledge linkers - were still essential. In the Toronto case, the actors found in this role were librarians. The important point is that the computer based directory needed a human director/conveyor/interpreter/linker to be fully effective. In sum, this concrete example demonstrated quite emphatically that while there can be no questioning the efficiency of the information storage and retrieval facility offered by the computer revolution, there still appears to be an urgent need for human knowledge linkers.

The Toronto system also reinforces the theory described earlier concerning the vital distinction between an information system and a communication system. This may seem an overly obvious point to labour. Yet failure to effect a significant improvement in the low level of knowledge utilisation by American educators noted by Thayer (1971) and O'Neil (1970) has been attributed to the fact that it was assumed that once an ERIC system was established, people would use it. This was a classic case of what happens when an information system is confused with a communication system. These scholars show that the information system is still not well used and they argue for human linkers to disseminate the information in it.

From a variety of theoretical perspectives it has been argued that a human knowledge linker, able to engage in transactive communication with individual adult clients and able to facilitate the matching of these individuals and their needs with some form of continuing education, is necessary. Further evidence might well have been cited, but space and time preclude such elaboration. But it should be emphasised that human knowledge linkers are needed for very practical reasons.

MEETING INDIVIDUAL NEEDS

For a whole host of reasons it is now necessary for governments to intervene directly in a number of fields where in the past such direct intervention would have been unthinkable. In education, health care, housing, civil rights and a number of other social welfare fields, state

and federal government agencies are now actively engaged in the provision of services. It is a major premise of this paper that formal government intervention directed towards increasing participation in recurring periods of education is becoming and must become an established part of social policy. Moreover, the position explicitly taken here is that the amount of such support and intervention is more likely to increase than decrease. What this means, among other things, is that those classes or groups of teachers who have not "volunteered for learning" in the past are now being deliberately sought out. We want to know why they have not participated, what the barriers are to their participation, and under what conditions, if any, they would participate. In sum, such groups are now regarded as a part of a client system which potentially embraces all teachers. We are deliberately seeking to know more about their needs as well as those of the groups who in the past have participated in significant numbers. Summing up what we do know about non-participants, we suspect that some of the reasons why they have not participated may be formulated in the following terms.

BARRIERS TO PARTICIPATION IN RECURRENT EDUCATION

There is still a great lack of data on what constitutes barriers to participation in recurrent education by Australians. Research conducted in the U.S. by the present writer (Botsman, 1975) and others (Carp, Peterson and Roelfs, 1973), however, would suggest that the kinds of barriers to participation likely to be most salient may be grouped into five major categories. These are (1) social and economic constraints; (2) competition with other activities; (3) perceived self image as a learner; (4) inadequacy of knowledge/information/guidance, and (5) barriers perceived as being imposed by the institutions themselves.

Social and economic constraints are barriers associated directly with lack of money and other resources. This category includes items cited by would-be learners such as the cost of transport, the cost of learning materials and/or child care, and also includes accommodation issues such as the lack of a place to study or practise at home.

The second category includes barriers relating to the inelasticity of time. In short, the desired learning may not be compatible with the demands made on the would-be learner by home responsibilities or job responsibilities or, alternatively, the would-be learner is not prepared to give up more of his/her disposable time, i.e., time not otherwise scheduled. Peer group pressure is often included in this category for peers can actively dissuade the would-be learner from giving time to learning, if they feel jealous or threatened by the loss of time spent with them.

The third category relates essentially to self-image. Those who claim they are too old, too tired, or lack confidence as well as those who hesitate to seem ambitious or overly zealous are included in this category.

Inadequacy of knowledge/information or guidance is a self-explanatory category and includes barriers such as that of getting started, not knowing what is available, or deciding what one would like to learn most.

Finally, there is a set of barriers which are perceived as being imposed by the institution offering programs. These include perceptions of too much red tape, strict attendance requirements and the image projected by the institution to the learner.

It is clear that a great deal of specific research needs to be undertaken in Australia before these categories of barriers to participation can be said to be either comprehensive or in any way definitive. However, the U.S. research findings appear to be congruent with observable Australian tendencies and the reasons for non-participation seem unlikely to be too dissimilar in range and kind.

For all these reasons, it is apparent that the role of knowledge linker for these target groups calls for humane, sympathetic, supportive and warm human qualities. It calls for special people with special talents of empathy and, above all, the sort of qualities which make it easy for members of the target populations to relate to them. It is part of the thesis of this paper that the identification and training of such people could pay handsome dividends in terms of the successful development of a knowledge utilisation system for recurrent education.

DEVELOPING THE NATURAL LINKER

The importance of recognising and developing some kind of natural linker is emphasised by Pierson (1972) who reports in his study, Community Services for the Disadvantaged, that even a referral from one program to another can be a frightening and threatening experience for some people. His solution? "One of the most important contributions a learning community can make is to see to it that strong linkages are developed." Conceding that this is expensive because it involves individual treatment, Pierson says that expense is a "minor problem" compared to the drop out and other costs associated with regaining the confidence of a client.

We have now looked at both theory and practice. From each we have concluded that human knowledge linkers are necessary. But, of course, we have avoided the question of what knowledge linkers really do and whether indeed all types of knowledge linkers should do the same sorts of things. In this context, and so that we can address these problems directly, a typology of specialist linkage roles developed by Havelock, Guskin and others (1969) is worthy of detailed consideration. Havelock and his associates have described nine types of linkage roles as follows:

1. The Conveyor: The best example is the representative of a drug manufacturing firm but in this group another important example is the expert adviser.
2. The Consultant: The agricultural extension agent, although he has many roles, probably spends the greater part of his time in this one where he identifies problems and resources for users.
3. The Trainer: A teacher of techniques or someone who trains others in the practice of an art or skill.

4. The Leader: This is the person who transfers knowledge by example or direction. Both the conveyor and the consultant are typically "outsiders," as is the trainer. Here the leader is an "insider" and, as Carlson (1962) has shown in the case of the school superintendent/administrator, such people can be powerful and influential linkers.
5. The Innovator: A good example is the demonstration teacher - the first person in a school system to take up a new idea or practice.
6. The Defender: It has been assumed to this point that all linkage roles are positive in the sense that they are allies of change irrespective of the nature of the change. But the consumer movement and the efforts of advocates such as Ralph Nader are persuasive reminders of the need for communicating "negative" knowledge.
7. The Knowledge Builder: The scholar or basic scientist in that he must submit his findings to a "jury of his peers" and through publishing in scholarly journals is also a linker in a very direct way. Applied researchers may also be included here.
8. Practitioner Linkers: Most of the roles defined above have been those which have linkages with the practising professional and not necessarily with the general public, though there is of course some overlap. Here, however, we come to the role which directly links knowledge and the client.
9. The User as Linker: Havelock and others (1969) have argued that the individual is the only locus of primary need; it is therefore for the user that knowledge is ultimately useful. The user as his own linker is therefore a vitally important role but, as Tough's (1967) studies indicate, one that still needs supportive service.

As this typology suggests there are many kinds of linkers; it is also clear that the roles in the typology are "ideal" rather than real. In real life there is likely to be considerable overlap between these ideal forms of linkage. But the typology is instructive in that it highlights the fact that different types of linkage role are called for at different points in or between different levels of knowledge utilisation. For example, a combination of Conveyor/Consultant and Trainer might be the most appropriate linkage specification for the role that acts as the human bridge between applied research and the practising professional group. In a real life context such persons might well be lecturers in adult and continuing education relating to practising professionals, or directors of adult and continuing education, or co-operative extension personnel in a locality or region. Bringing research findings to bear on real problems, helping to identify what the problems are, and teaching the particular skills associated with the instruction of adult clients - all these might be part of the linkage role of the lecturer. He or she might also be a Knowledge Builder adding to theory and new knowledge. The point is that in any real life role a combination of the ideal types can be identified and this combination will differ according to the level in the knowledge utilisation scheme at which a new linkage seems required.

The Pivotal Linkage Roles. In recurrent education for teachers, the key linkage roles which are most needed are between the practising professionals or suppliers of recurrent education services and particular groups of teachers. Although, as the typology itself suggests, some users are their own linkers, or to use Tough's (1967) terminology, some adults are autonomous learners, there still exists a need for people specifically trained as specialists in the process of linkage. This is not to say that a whole new professional vocation should be initiated although it is interesting to note that Havelock, Guskin and their colleagues (1969) state, "We need to develop a new curriculum in our schools of education specifically designed to develop linking agents." But people already exist who might well be specially trained as linkers in addition to whatever their present role may be. This is partly because, as corroborated by research workers who have used Tough's methodology for discovering the extent and kinds of learning projects undertaken by adults (Coolican, 1973; McCatty, 1973; Johns, 1973; Denys, 1973; Johnson, 1973), most adult learners consult someone about their learning plans and projects. Quite often these are "natural opinion leaders", which is to say they are often members of a peer group, not necessarily better educated in years of formal exposure to schools or schooling, but people to whom others relate easily and who seem to have achieved authority in the eyes of the group or individual in question. As well as these opinion leaders there are a number of people in the profession who regularly have contact with teachers. In essence, it is assumed here that people can be identified and trained to use their charisma or authority or empathy or all of these to relate transactively to others and to advise them of programs and other measures which can help them to successfully undertake learning projects.

Identifying and Training the Natural Linker. But these two assumptions -- that they can be identified and trained -- merit closer examination since they are clearly critical. Empirical research does, however, give us some clues as to the sort of person who might successfully fill the linkage role. As we shall see, this helps us both in identifying, and where necessary, in deliberate training in, the special skills that are warranted. Rogers and Shoemaker (1971) have summarized the evidence associated with what makes an effective change agent. These seven traits and characteristics seem to apply equally well to the knowledge linker. They found that the effectiveness of the change agent was positively related to:

- (a) the amount of effort expended,
- (b) the amount of empathy felt by the change agent towards his/her clients,
- (c) the credibility of the agent in the eyes of the clients,
- (d) the social status of the agent,
- (e) the level of education and literacy of the change agent,
- (f) the cosmopolitan attributes of the change agent, and
- (g) the agent's homophily with his/her clients.

It would appear, therefore, that these findings related to a knowledge linker might produce the following requirements:

1. Traits of persistence, high energy and commitment should be sought.

2. The knowledge linker should probably be oriented more towards his or her clients than towards the change agency. (Hence if high school teachers were the target population it would appear that a fellow teacher rather than an agent sent from a college of advanced education would make the better first line knowledge linker.)
3. Credibility will of course vary tremendously in different places but a record of credibility can be built up by a person in situ rather more easily than by an occasional visitor.
4. People who are looked down upon for whatever reason are likely to find it difficult to effect change. This is almost definitional as we have already stated that the successful knowledge linker has to enjoy respect and status.
5. A minimal level of education would probably be a burden, but so too would too much. But the knowledge linker will have to defend and justify his role and his advice to others and to clients, so that a degree of fluency and the ability to articulate ideas seem more a formal requirement than a college education. Ideally, however, the first line knowledge linker would need to be trained to be aware of alternative solutions to people problems and to absorb new ideas quickly, and most importantly, when and how to refer problems to professional linkers.
6. Findings from diffusion research indicate that the extent of one's contacts and one's gregariousness outside the work place and a variety of work experiences in different roles at different places all contribute to the likelihood that a particular person will be an effective agent of change to whom others will turn.
7. Finally, homophily refers to the degree to which "pairs of individuals who interact are similar in certain attributes." Since transactive relationships are necessary in this role, it follows that in general the knowledge linker should be similar in key respects to the people or clients he is to serve. As the Havelocks suggest: "If he is going to be working with blacks he should probably be black; if he is working with youth he probably should be young, and so forth" (Havelock and Havelock, 1973). Of course, this can be carried to absurd lengths and, indeed, the reductio ad absurdum is the blind leading the blind, but within reasonable bounds the principle holds because the person will have empathy, and more important, he will be seen to have empathy for others in the client-peer group.

It will be seen that all these research findings are supportive of the notion that natural first line linkers should be found and then trained rather than new linkers trained and then placed, although either strategy may be still viable. But very real problems have so far been ignored. For it can be safely said that while the task of identifying the potential knowledge linker does not appear to be too formidable a task, the act of training him/her and then ensuring that he/she is content to go back and play the role intended is far more complex and its outcomes far more uncertain.

The Training of Knowledge Linkers. The sort of training that knowledge linkers might need in order to be effective is set out below. In theory, the linkage specialist should have mastered all or most of these elements.

1. An understanding of the knowledge dissemination and utilisation process.
2. An understanding of different client systems.
3. Strategies for collaboration with different client systems.
4. Strategies for assessing needs.
5. Strategies for evaluation including client self-evaluation.
6. An understanding of the resource system including the existing delivery system and its strengths and weaknesses.
7. Estimating level of achieved competence.
8. Detecting blocks and inefficiencies.
9. Obtaining or reaching resources or equipment.
10. Preparing a study space or other physical amenities.
11. Obtaining financial aid.
12. Finding time for the learning.
13. Increasing and sustaining motivation and dealing with motivational blocks.

As Tough notes, almost anyone may provide help at one or other of the stages described above. The point, however, is that rarely are those in the non-participant or would-be participant groups able to find people able to answer or assist with all of their queries and problems.

WHERE AND HOW ADULTS LEARN : LEARNING SETTINGS AND METHODS

As a starting point in looking at the present situation in continuing education, the work of Tough (1967, 1971) indicates the scope of adult learning and where teachers and other adults seek educational opportunities, and what and how they study. Tough sought to determine the full range of adult learning, encompassing all highly deliberate learning efforts whether entirely self-planned and carried out or occurring in more formal and traditional settings. Subsequent studies based on Tough's research and employing such populations as professionals (McCatty, 1973), pharmacists (Johns, 1973), elementary school teachers (Fair, 1973), managers in Ghana (Denys, 1973), recent adult high school graduates (Johnson, 1973), young mothers (Coolican, 1973) and co-operative extension agents (Botsman and Miller, 1975) have supported the finding that almost everyone participates in a number of sustained and deliberate learning efforts in a year. Some individuals were discovered to undertake as many as 15 or 20 learning projects in this period.

In addition, the learning undertaken by the adults in these studies was predominantly self-planned, indicating that approximately two thirds of the learners had retained the primary responsibility for planning and directing their own learning. Only the remaining one third of the learners had utilised groups (e.g. classes, lectures, study groups), one-to-one instruction, learning from material resources (e.g. programmed instruction, tapes) or a combination of methods in attaining their learning goals. Although the numbers of adults sampled in these studies tended to be low, a result of the time and effort involved in conducting extensive personal interviews, the efforts taken together strongly

support the thesis that most adults have a strong interest in continuing to learn. However, this learning was occurring in a variety of settings and methods, many of which were outside of both the educational core and periphery.

But there has been little enough research into the way teachers learn. A small study conducted in New York State (Botsman and Kelley, 1976) found *inter alia* that 20 high school teachers who had taught one or two years differed significantly in a variety of ways from a matched group of high school teachers who had taught from 10 to 15 years. Nevertheless, each group had undertaken on average 7-9 learning projects in the past year which they identified as contributing directly to their professional growth and development. Of particular interest and import was the fact that 65% of the learning projects were self-planned and initiated. These teachers were then asked to identify from a list of twenty-seven difficulties those which were major concerns for them as they pursued their learning. There was a statistically significant difference between the two groups in the total number of learning difficulties identified. Group one cited an average of 7.8 difficulties, group two an average of 5.7 difficulties.

Forty-five per cent of the teachers in group one identified planning the learning as a major concern. Five per cent of group two identified this as a concern. The difference between the two groups on this one difficulty was statistically significant. No statistically significant difference was found between the two groups on each of the other learning difficulties identified. The eleven most frequently cited learning difficulties were:

1. Finding and arranging time for the learning.
2. Keeping other concerns from interrupting the learning.
3. Deciding how to begin.
4. Securing the materials.
5. Dealing with doubts about your success.
6. Being able to read all that is available.
7. Knowing where and what materials are available.
8. Obtaining money for the project.
9. Finding someone who was an authority in the area.
10. Identifying what to learn.
11. Planning the learning.

Though only a small sample, this study suggests that more global research needs to be done in this area with large samples. The Bassett Report (1978, pp. 83-90) lists recent Australian research into teachers' learning habits. All studies suggest that a great deal more research is necessary. Moreover, the data strongly suggest that if the knowledge linker role is to be finally effective, the needs of the individual learner must become central, not the needs of institutions fighting for survival in the "numbers" racket which is as pervasive today in higher education in Australia as it was in Chicago during prohibition.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

The ten research areas which follow are based upon the notion that recurrent education for teachers should be seen as a part of a knowledge utilization system along the lines briefly outlined in this paper.

1. Research into the recurrent education needs of teachers in Australia should be generated and carried out using the knowledge linker concept and the knowledge utilization paradigm as a starting point.
2. Research into the ways in which the knowledge linker role can be effectively integrated into existing provisions for recurrent education so as to provide a two way knowledge exchange system informing both suppliers and clients is clearly warranted.
3. The implications of the knowledge linker concept for inspectors, school principals, teaching advisers and other educational leaders appear to be no more nor less than an imperative if the lessons deriving from other social science areas are to be heeded.
4. More basic research into the learning needs of teachers at different stages in their professional careers is warranted.
5. More basic research into the preferred learning styles of teachers is needed.
6. Specific studies of barriers to participation are needed.
7. Basic research is needed to ascertain the extent and range of professionally related self-directed learning activities.
8. Research designed to identify the ways in which teachers engaged in self-directed learning projects can best be assisted is needed.
9. Research designed to more clearly establish the most appropriate roles for institutions, groups and individuals is needed.

Finally, as will have been apparent from the tenor of this paper, educators and especially those engaged in research should be enjoined to read and draw upon research studies from other areas of knowledge, and in particular those which have addressed the problem of knowledge utilization.

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CONCEPTS OF RECURRENT EDUCATION: PHILOSOPHIES,
POLICIES AND IMPLICATIONS FOR TEACHING IN TECHNICAL
AND FURTHER EDUCATION IN AUSTRALIA

Michael Buxton and Pauline Keating

INTRODUCTION

This paper has three aims. First, it investigates current research into the attitudes and perceptions of teachers working in Technical and Further Education (TAFE) institutions. Some teacher attitudes thought important are those towards their role and the influence which administrators, curriculum developers, industry and the adult community have on it. Information on teacher characteristics forms a background to this first issue but is not central to it.

Second, the paper identifies and analyses current issues affecting TAFE teachers. The focal issue here is the implications of a philosophy of recurrent education as they apply to TAFE teachers.

Third, areas of possible further research are identified. The first two aims serve as a basis for this one. In fact, very little research has been carried out into TAFE teachers. The little done is generally limited and local, or is an incidental part of wider research. Projects and reports have been written on an interesting range of issues in TAFE. An increasing amount of work is being done on curriculum development, design and evaluation, and on occupational analyses and performance statements. There is research into students and their employment characteristics and outcomes and into other areas. The general omission of major research into TAFE teachers, particularly into teacher perceptions and practices, is puzzling but glaring. Nothing comparable to major studies into secondary and technical and post-secondary teachers in countries outside Australia exists for Australian TAFE teachers.

There are constant references to 1980 as a year of re-evaluation of TAFE in the literature of the 1970s. The economic and social context of the first Australian Committee on Technical and Further Education (ACOTAFE) Report has changed, yet nothing has quite replaced this report. It retains the status of a somewhat modified educational bible. Yet there is now a need to re-examine the original concepts and use this analysis as the basis for factual surveys into TAFE teachers, and to relate both concepts and survey data to a philosophy of recurrent education. Only then can a determination be made of the extent to which teachers want to implement, can implement and are implementing such a philosophy.

THE CONCEPT OF RECURRENT EDUCATION

In 1974, the Kangan Committee argued that recurrent education had to be understood as a concept before it could be implemented as a social objective.¹ The importance of delineating the characteristics of recurrent education, and applying these to a philosophy of further education, was a constant theme of the early TAFE reports and discussions. In May, 1980, Kangan returned to the central importance of

philosophical assumptions and values in Technical and Further Education, and of the concept of recurrent education. He re-emphasised the importance of "the furthering of the concept of Recurrent Education". In particular, he spoke of the lack of interest in enabling people to leave the workforce and re-enter educational institutions and argued that this idea was central to the concept and should now be emphasised.²

There is a continuing need to clarify the concept and to seek some general agreement among educators and community groups about its meaning and its application as an educational strategy. Duke points out that although innovations in some universities and colleges were illustrating some aspects of recurrent education, the concept was scarcely heard of within Australia before 1973.³ The system of ideas contained in such terms as recurrent, integrated, lifelong and permanent education at this time, he argued, was understood by only a few educational theorists and still fewer administrators and had attracted no public interest to this time.⁴

Both the Kangan and Richardson ACOTAFE reports placed great emphasis on defining the characteristics of further or recurrent education.⁵ These reports provided the first working definitions of recurrent education applied to technical and further education institutions. However, in 1977, at a National Seminar on Recurrent Education, educationalists were still asking: "Does the term have any limits? Or is it such a general concept that it is a sort of educational umbrella? Is it really an important specialized concept?".⁶ In 1980 TAFE teachers reported that because there was lack of understanding of, and agreement about, the philosophy of recurrent education, it did not really feature as an issue in their institutions.⁷ Kangan complains that educationalists, today, are paying no more than lip service to the idea of recurrent education and it is for this reason that he urges that the subject be publicly debated.⁸

The importance of explanations of the concept of recurrent education is that definitions served as the indispensable background to policies outlined in the early TAFE reports. The Richardson Committee restated the suggestion that TAFE is the major system meeting an increasing demand for recurrent education.⁹ TAFE has played the central role in the debate on further education in Australia made possible by the 1974 and 1975 ACOTAFE reports. This paper aims to investigate the extent to which the challenges to teachers implicit in the definition have been taken up and implemented. First, it will argue that recurrent education is not being widely practised in Australia as an educational philosophy and practice developed in relation to the workforce. Second, it will examine the implications for teachers of a number of issues relevant to the theme of recurrent education in TAFE and identify some of the problems which have impeded the full acceptance and application of the concept.

Discussion within Australia on the concept of recurrent education was prompted, in part, by an international re-evaluation of the relationship between education in schools and in society at large during the '60s and early '70s. When Australian educational theorists came to formulate a philosophical framework for the new orientations (and they were new, despite claims by some administrators that they were old ideas dressed in new words) they relied almost entirely on the OECD and UNESCO documents

which deal with the concepts of lifelong learning and recurrent education.¹⁰ The Kangan Committee demonstrated its indebtedness to UNESCO's Learning to Be by reproducing whole extracts of this publication in an appendix.¹¹ These reports emphasised the following features: transfer between work and education as needs require; provision for each individual of a suitable education at an appropriate place and time; abolition of barriers between systems of education and formal and non-formal systems; learning rather than teaching; self-motivated individuals with enthusiasm for learning; and the reduction of the gap between educated and less educated individuals.¹² Duke describes recurrent education as "a strategy for the reform of the education system as a whole in the direction of lifelong learning".¹³ The OECD analysis includes the following features: real choice in the later school years between work and school; guaranteed access to post-compulsory education; availability of education to all; work and other social experiences as basic elements in rules of admission and design of curricula; alternation in any career between work and study; co-operation between interest groups on design of curricula and methods; displacement of degrees and like instruments as 'end results'; legal rights to educational leave from work; and on-the-job learning.¹⁴

The Kangan Committee acknowledged that any effective application of recurrent education requires "the co-ordination of the different levels and categories within the education system" and that its full application would entail changes beyond the education sphere. However, the Committee strongly recommended that it be accepted as an "integrating principle" and proceeded to demonstrate the way in which the area of technical and further education could be restructured and extended for the implementation of current education strategies.¹⁵

It will be argued later that such changes have not eventuated. The part teachers have played in this failure, and implications for TAFE teachers, will also be explored.

There is now a sizeable collection of Australian writings discussing the concepts of lifelong learning, recurrent education, continuing education and so forth, but without reference or with only incidental reference to TAFE. Responses within TAFE to early discussions on recurrent education did little more than endorse Kangan. There has hardly been any attempt by TAFE educators to develop or revise the concept in response to endeavours to implement recurrent education within TAFE. This is possibly because the strategies of recurrent education are more easily applied to the area of 'adult education' which, traditionally in Australia, has been non-vocational, non-credit bearing and relatively informal.¹⁶ However, to so restrict the concept to this area is to unacceptably limit its scope. Adult education, as it is conventionally understood, has typically provided predominantly middle-class people with 'interests' or enrichment and has not, to any significant extent, provided the kind of access envisaged within a lifelong learning philosophy. In particular, it has not met the needs of working people for retraining, nor has it really reached out to the many disadvantaged groups in Australian communities, including those whom the conventional education system has failed. It is significant that one of the research reports of the Henderson Committee (Inquiry into Poverty in Australia) saw the strategies of recurrent education (as defined by the OECD) as the

means "which may conceivably put an end to self-exclusion from lifelong education" of poor adults.¹⁷

A philosophy of recurrent education applied to TAFE should not provide for a notion of adult education as distinct from other aspects of lifelong learning. This is not to say that special learning needs and problems of adults should be ignored. But because adult education is so typically identified with non-vocational, non-formal education, it avoids confronting many of the crucially important issues involved in distributing education over the lifespan of an individual in a recurring way. A system of recurrent education should have the flexibility to accommodate the variety of adult interests and needs. Moreover, a philosophy of lifelong learning should reject the compartmentalizing of an individual's educational experience.

This habit of thinking about adult education as a separate system has a tenacious grip on the minds of many educationalists. Even the Kangan Committee Report categorizes Stream 6 Courses in Technical Colleges as Adult Education,¹⁸ as does the Tertiary Education Commission,¹⁹ despite the fact that a large proportion of students in the other five streams are adults. These are examples of the thinking which relegates 'recurrent education' to Streams 5 and 6. These are the areas which have traditionally catered for adults returning to study and so, for many TAFE administrators and teachers, recurrent education begins and ends with refresher courses or hobby courses.

Adult entry to Streams 5 and 6, where it is effective, should not be used to show TAFE responsiveness to the need for recurrent education, while making access difficult or impossible in other streams. Teachers should see all streams as elements in a further education philosophy. Trade teachers, though initially reluctant to teach in Stream 6 courses at Frankston College, for example, are now committed to that area. Collingwood Technical College has reported the same occurrence.

Despite philosophical arguments from Kangan onward to the contrary, the tendency to identify 'further' education only with Streams 5 and 6 is still evident among administrators, teachers and politicians. The Victorian Strategy Plan argues that Streams 2 to 4 should be administered separately from Streams 5 and 6. This has been interpreted by several teacher unions as advocating the separation of vocational from further education. Many colleges still separate "technical education" from "further education" in handbooks and in practice. It is now often argued in colleges that the nomenclature should be changed so that all TAFE education is described as further education.

Despite the endeavours by the Kangan and the Richardson Committees, it seems that the concept is still not clearly understood by TAFE teachers. Neither is recurrent education being practised in the manner the ACOTAFE reports envisaged, and little research has been undertaken into the attitudes of TAFE teachers towards recurrent education.

In identifying factors affecting the implementation of a philosophy of recurrent education, TAFE teacher attitudes and practices are centrally important. In the absence of research, we will identify some issues arising from an examination of the implications of the concept of

recurrent education for TAFE teachers and, where relevant, suggest areas of further research. A philosophy of recurrent education recognises that a person's initial period of formal education cannot provide all the necessary vocational skills or aspects of personal development required in a society based on rapid technological change. This has major implications for TAFE teachers which this paper now aims to explore.

SCOPE OF TAFE

Confusion about the role of TAFE in relation to other areas of post-secondary education can be traced in part to definitional vagueness or neglect in Kangan and succeeding TAFE reports, and in other reports, particularly that of the Williams Committee. The Kangan Committee could find no precise delineation of technical and further education and preferred instead to describe the activities then practised in Australia. Kangan defined technical and further education as vocational education and training, and education for personal development. The Committee also identified the scope of technical and further education as all post school vocational education and all adult retraining or education. This is consistent with the Committee's desire to avoid an artificial separation between general and vocational education. However, defining TAFE in terms of post school vocational education and personal development education does not provide the means to demarcate TAFE from other areas of post-secondary education. Therefore the Committee was led to an ostensive definition by pointing to activities then taking place in TAFE institutions.

TAFE and Post-Secondary Education. To the Kangan Committee, technical and further education was not just different from other aspects of Australian education; it should be seen as an alternative - neither inferior nor superior - to the other stream of education.²⁰ This view that TAFE should be an equal partner and lose its "cinderella status" has been constantly repeated throughout the 1970s. The Kangan Committee, however, did not present a detailed view on what the relationship between TAFE and other areas of post-secondary education should be. The lack of detailed conceptual analysis of this issue by the Kangan Committee was a lost opportunity to provide an early framework which, if accepted, may have provided a philosophical rationale for TAFE and TAFE teachers in relation to other post-secondary education sectors.

The Committee rejected the importance of precise definitions between types of post-secondary institutions arguing that overlapping of courses could be beneficial especially since it could provide adults with greater access to recurrent education. Since 1974, the issue of overlapping courses, and the problem of definition of the scope of TAFE, has become so troublesome that it is now a central issue for teachers. The Committee argued against the need for definitional clarity on the grounds that if different types of institutions formulated courses on the basis of genuine educational criteria then an existing community need would be adequately met. Accordingly the report rejected the use of availability of funds as a basis for classifying courses.²¹ Increasingly, however, criteria other than educational criteria are being used as a justification for course development. Competition between TAFE colleges and CAEs and consequent duplication of course types arise to an important

extent from the Kangan Committee's decision not to adequately define the scope of TAFE.

Neither have other national reports such as the report of the Williams Committee into Education, Training and Employment, or in general, State departments, dealt adequately with this issue. The new Victorian TAFE Board, for example, will be able to authorise and accredit new TAFE courses and major developments in existing courses in an attempt to ensure the most effective use of resources. However, neither the Victorian government's proposal for the TAFE Board, nor the Victorian TAFE Council's Strategy Plan adequately consider the question of the scope of TAFE in relation to other post-secondary levels.

The complexities in the structural relationship between areas of post-secondary education were illustrated by R.E. Parry of the N.S.W. Higher Education Board in 1978, when he mentioned the problem of rationalisation of the activities of TAFE and CAEs, but nevertheless provided no clear solutions.²² Parry returned to the same problem the following year after the "TAFE in the '80s Conference" at Perth, again referring to the lack of solutions. "The overlapping roles of colleges of advanced education and colleges of technical and further education", he said, "have now developed into quite a serious problem which is almost impossible to grapple with given the present compartmentalised system of educational administration".²³

The TAFE/CAE relationship is causing particular concern to TAFE teachers and administrators. Attention has centred on CAE involvement in middle level courses which provide an educational preparation for occupations between professions and trades. CAEs are widely seen by TAFE personnel as competitors for students at the middle level occupational stream, and even for those interested in personal development courses, both essential features of the scope of TAFE identified by the Kangan committee. This concern, for example, was expressed in a recent TAFETAA submission.

The Australian community is not large enough to support this kind of competition between institutions. Therefore steps should be taken to ensure that institutions adhere to their prime purpose The present "empire moulding and holding" mentality in post-secondary institutions needs to be actively discouraged.²⁴

The unresolved contention over the prime purpose of the types of institutions has led to a philosophy of competition and increasing duplication. Argument has centred around the CAE vacation of middle level education in favour of professional degree and diploma qualifications, and further TAFE college movement into the middle level area. CAE competition with universities over a contracting tertiary education market has assisted the growth of UG.3 (Associate Diploma) courses in CAEs. TAFE teachers' perceptions of the threat of this development to their own positions, and the development of middle level courses can be traced directly to the lack of a clear-cut demarcation between the educational responsibilities of TAFE, and the CAEs, State Colleges of Victoria (SCV) and Universities. In 1976, B.E. Lloyd commented on the "great pity that there is not better 1 relative clarity of objectives between the TAFE and tertiary areas of education". There was a need for contraction and "firmer governmental control to eliminate

unproductive competition and rivalry between what should be separate areas of educational responsibility".²⁵

The structural relationship between TAFE and other areas of post-secondary education raises important questions about the implications of recurrent education for TAFE teachers. How do possible duplication and competition between post-secondary education systems affect the recurrent education principle of access between these systems? What are TAFE teachers' attitudes towards this issue and how are their attitudes and practices affecting their role in providing recurrent education opportunities?

A common solution by TAFE interests is to identify CAEs, SCVs and universities with professional level courses. TAFE colleges would then be concerned with the range of sub-professional courses identified by Kangan.²⁶ TAFE would provide a middle level certificate as its top level, have responsibility for post-certificate courses and all technician level courses.²⁷ Middle level non-professional courses, in this scheme, would not be funded outside TAFE institutions. This view has had some political impact. In the opening address to the 1980 TAFETAA Conference, Senator John Button stated that:

Under the ALP government, TAFE need not be concerned about the encroachment of CAEs into traditional certificate areas. A future ALP government will not feel obliged to fully fund UG.3 courses in CAEs which could be quite adequately mounted at certificate course level by TAFE.

This view of TAFE's role and function has been criticised on several grounds. It has been argued that under it, TAFE colleges would become, or remain, concerned with a lower achieving population of students. Despite lip service being paid to an "equal but different" philosophy, this would result in a lower status for TAFE colleges at a time when status for TAFE is widely seen to be important. The argument continues that it may also result in TAFE colleges being used on an ad-hoc basis to reduce structural unemployment and, despite Kangan philosophy, as the primary means of manpower training to satisfy industry, not individual needs. Others have argued that TAFE should heighten its prestige and extend its courses into higher status areas such as the associate diploma level. Independent TAFE authorities may result in staff being appointed to TAFE colleges who because of their background and sympathies will take TAFE in this direction. It has been widely argued that both these trends are now evident in TAFE colleges. Teacher attitudes and practices in these issues would be worth clarifying.

The question of access to TAFE and to other types of post-secondary institutions from TAFE is also important in discussing the relationship between levels of post-secondary education. This issue will be discussed in detail later.

In conclusion, seven years after the adoption of the report of the Kangan Committee, there is widespread confusion by teachers about the present and future role of TAFE. The adoption of a philosophy of recurrent education would have serious implications for TAFE teachers' perceptions of the role and scope of TAFE and how community needs are to be met

through courses. The 1980 Victorian TAFE Strategy Plan, for example, adopts a 'marketing' philosophy.²⁸ The substitution of the attempt to gain more students in Streams 1 to 4 for an active philosophy of recurrent education would almost certainly result in teachers surrendering it before comprehensive strategies to implement it had been developed. The Kangan Report has remained a basic guide for TAFE long after the economic circumstances it was based on have changed. Many of its recommendations and arguments now appear unacceptable. However, it seems important that, in the absence of any further comprehensive report, teachers should question assumptions on such issues as the need for courses to be developed on a free-market basis in competition particularly with CAEs. There are widespread different emphases between TAFE colleges on types of courses, and differences between states on the level of centralized vs localized control in matters such as course development. TAFE colleges are taking on an increasing number of tasks and functions at a time when the role, scope and function of TAFE has never been more uncertain. TAFE teachers' perceptions of their role, and motivations for courses, consequently vary greatly and are often confused. If TAFE is forced to suddenly contract its offerings in a time of economic restraint, then TAFE teachers and students will pay dearly for unco-ordinated expansion unrelated to a thorough and consistent practical implementation of a philosophy, as State Colleges in Victoria are now demonstrating. As Tickell says, TAFE would be wise to learn from the experience of other sectors of education and, while conditions are relatively favourable, establish very clearly what it can and what it cannot do.²⁹

ACCESS

From 1974 to the present there has been "a strong philosophical push accompanied by policies, funding and programs to help eliminate the barriers to access" in post-secondary education.³⁰ Many people have identified this trend primarily with the increase in the resources of technical and further education. A central theme of the first ACOTAFE report was the concept of unrestricted access to further education with TAFE as the primary means of achieving this end. "TAFE offers the largest and possibly the most comprehensive system in Australia to put into practice the lifelong education concept", the second report argued.³¹ Earlier committees of enquiry and the Technical and Further Education Commission (1976) believed that TAFE was already a relatively accessible and flexible system. The first ACOTAFE report, for example, argued in 1974 that access to technical education was less difficult than to many other forms of post-school education because of the range of courses, minimal pre-requisites and part-time enrolment.³²

Access in early TAFE reports was considered in terms of barriers to access and provision of recurrent educational opportunities for those who wished to return to an educational system to further their employment opportunities or for interest. The second report systematized the first's comments on access and factors relevant to two of the five categories, namely TAFE teachers and the TAFE system, will now be examined in turn.

TAFE TEACHERS

There has been no major research into TAFE teachers' attitudes to recurrent education or to teaching methods, course content, students, vocational and liberal education, staff development or to any other question. In the absence of major research, this section will examine the following issues relevant to a study of TAFE teachers and suggest areas of research.

The issues are: vocational and liberal education; the impact of technological change on the ability of TAFE teachers to maintain relevance in courses; the general relationship between industry and TAFE, particularly in relation to manpower requirements and individual wishes; and the education and further education of TAFE teachers. Research into all these areas and teachers' attitudes to them is needed.

Liberal Studies and Manpower Planning. The implications of liberal studies for teacher training and manpower planning for TAFE curriculum development are currently being widely debated. The Cochrane Report on labour market training made recommendations aimed at increasing labour mobility and commented on inflexible training programs which resulted in people being specialised in a time of rapid technological change. It is now widely argued that adaptable skills should be provided in TAFE vocational courses both in initial training, and retraining. "If skills taught in vocational programs are too narrow, in a rapidly changing world they will soon become obsolete. Then vocational education in TAFE will become a terminal learning experience."³³ Others have pointed to the need for general education to provide an increasingly specialised vocational training.³⁴ Karmel³⁵ has pointed out most succinctly the need for training in adaptable skills. Australian industry and commerce, he said, clearly require trained workers with specific skills. However, the long-term advantages of a broad education outweigh short-term requirements of employers with specific skills. Because of the changing structure of Australian industry, narrow vocational skills may become quickly obsolete. Courses should fit students for a range of occupations so that options and the capacity for change in employment exist. Yet there is, at present, little scope for human and personal development components of courses for apprentices because of the rigid demands of traditional apprenticeship curriculum authorities. However there is an increasing trend in certificate courses for general education subjects or electives as part of the course.

Others have related this argument to a philosophy of recurrent education. Coughlan³⁶ defined vocational education as one which leads to

an understanding of the processes, materials and tools of the vocation so that the graduate of this vocational course, whether he or she be a motor mechanic or a medical practitioner, not only knows how to exercise a skill, but has acquired also the basis of sound judgement of where and when the skill should be exercised.

This will allow the learner to develop skills and attitudes essential for successful adaptation of change. But it will also impart the realization that at no time in life is one's education complete; "the speed of

change in modern life has merely emphasised the fact that an important attribute of an educated person has always been a desire to continue learning".³⁶ Occasional other criticisms can be found of the separation of vocational and personal development education. It would seem that most forms of general education "are vocational for at least some students, while all vocational education affects the learner as a person and therefore has some general education value."³⁷ Union groups also argue this view. There is, however, suspicion of industry on this point among many TAFE teachers and a belief that employers want "to narrow the curriculum to an alleged essential 'core' and pseudo-vocational components."³⁸

Research into current practices is needed to determine how TAFE teachers and existing courses approach the relationship between liberal and vocational education. Figures of adults enrolled in TAFE, in full or part-time courses, do not show whether courses are assisting adaptability. Neither do they show the percentage of adults re-entering the system or their motives for re-entry. Until this information is gained, nobody knows whether TAFE is meeting the need for new skills by broad skill training, or encouraging further adult education in conjunction with technological and workforce change.

The relationship between TAFE and industry has been perhaps the most common theme in the TAFE literature of the middle and late 1970s. Many different perspectives have been given to this issue. The argument presented here is that there is a need to examine conceptual issues and practical programs which might arise from a TAFE-industry-union relationship based on a functioning recurrent education philosophy. This argument does not imply a change to the TAFE concentration on the needs of the individual. But it does imply the rejection of a distinction between technical and liberal, and general and vocational studies. The Kangan philosophy rejected a distinction between "training" and "education". This is a position fundamental to the importance of TAFE.

TAFEC reports, at least until 1979, and the post-secondary education reports in the States have generally continued the Kangan emphasis on the individual.³⁹ Kangan, despite some claims to the contrary, did not present the needs of the individual and of industry as a dichotomy of choices. Neither did he argue that TAFE should see two types of people, those seeking individual development and those being trained according to industry needs. Thus TAFE teachers should not make distinctions between vocational and general, technical or educational studies, or between technical and further education. Youth training, pre-vocational, pre-apprenticeship, adult training, and retraining or education should also all be seen as aspects of this broad philosophy.

Nevertheless the needs of industry cannot be ignored since TAFE is the authority to which most individuals turn when seeking formal qualification. For example, in 1979, the Tertiary Education Commission argued the need for TAFE institutions to accept responsibility to help adults who are forced to change jobs, and to assist the rising number of unemployed young people to more easily obtain relevant skills which are immediately useful in the workplace.⁴⁰ This argument has been interpreted too narrowly as necessarily advocating the provision of TAFE subservience to industry's needs or governments' wishes by using TAFE as

a dumping ground for the unemployed or as a provider of industrial cannon fodder. Nevertheless, the danger that a shift in manpower policy applied to TAFE, from the Kangan emphasis, will be self-defeating, has recently been pointed out. Lesley Hodson, for example, has argued that the TAFE Council is now stating that TAFE will become an indispensable part of government policies on manpower planning in the absence of a detailed, coherent and economically sound set of manpower planning techniques applied to the Australian economy. The use of TAFE to meet short term manpower needs will not solve and may exacerbate long term labour problems. TAFE should help people cope with the process of change itself and offer sufficiently broad vocational courses with refresher courses for updating of skills and extension of existing ones.⁴¹ It is important that thought be given to implementing the argument for adult retraining by providing adaptable labour skills.

In a comment on the Report of the Australian Interdepartmental Mission to Study Overseas Manpower and Industry Policies and Programs (1974), the Richardson Report noted that many forms and levels of occupational skill training and education are already available in TAFE institutions, particularly at technician and sub-professional levels. Since then, there have been important further developments in preparatory basic skills, specialized and refresher courses, though the emphasis in these differs between States and between institutions. The need for the admission of older people to apprenticeship courses is an old issue which, while unacted upon, affects the capacity of TAFE to extend the opportunity for adult re-entry to education and the workforce. It has also been argued here that TAFE is almost certainly not fulfilling its role as an agency of recurrent education because of some continuing restrictions on access to re-entry from the workforce.

The Impact of Technological Change. The New South Wales TAFE Department Conference, "TAFE in the '80s", considered the effect of the technological revolution on TAFE staff and student numbers. It is now often argued that TAFE teachers themselves will be caught up in the process of coping with change as new technology wipes out existing skills.⁴²

It is important to mention that although the view presented here is often expressed, the extent of technology-caused redundancy is still debated. There is a need for further research into the levels and causes of redundancy and deskilling. Certainly there seems to be a widespread lack of concern for this issue in TAFE colleges and TAFE teachers' attitudes on this issue should be further investigated.

Relationships with Industry. The issue of the implications of changing technology for TAFE teachers has been identified as an important concern in successive reports in TAFE. Firstly, technical teachers must be given increasing opportunities for professional and personal development if they are to keep pace with technological change. If course content is to be relevant to occupational needs, then national and State TAFE authorities should liaise with labour authorities to provide adequate manpower information to teachers.⁴³ This is now being done to some extent by such means as occupational analyses by the curriculum divisions of some State TAFE authorities. It is interesting that the Victorian TAFE Strategy Plan did not examine teaching in the context of the

changing technology, but recommended that "both State and regional TAFE curriculum development processes should be advised and monitored by a system of committees appointed from industry and the community." These committees would ensure that courses conformed to user needs.⁴⁴ This view has been often condemned by TAFE teachers as confining TAFE to narrow vocational training for specified jobs,⁴⁵ and as "circumscribed vocational education" with a view of TAFE primarily as a service to business and industrial interests.⁴⁶

It seems inevitable that TAFE teachers will have to consider more deeply the relationship between education, industry and unions, in training. Should industry take more responsibility in training? Is too much expected of the ability of college training without an effective partnership between these three sources of initial and recurrent educational opportunities for workers and other individuals, and teachers? How can teachers best maintain course relevance? Also, there is still a tendency to identify the community with industry and commerce and to ignore wider public participation in educational policy and practice. The Victorian TAFE Strategy Plan would seem to still suggest this view. A comparison of TAFE teachers' views towards the process of curriculum formulation in centralist and more autonomous models, and related issues of industry and public participation, might prove interesting.

The implication of this argument is that TAFE teachers, unions and employer organization are not providing sufficient opportunities to equip older people with the means to cope with the rate of technological change, as required by a philosophy of retraining. Lack of cooperation between TAFE teachers and employer and employee organizations and lack of interest in the need for recurrent education are perhaps the main reasons for this. In negotiating industrial agreements, union and employer representatives have generally ignored the question of recurrent education for members of the workforce. Emphasis has been on reduction in working hours not on increase in learning time; on redundancy pay, not opportunities for retraining. G.W. Ford has suggested that factories operating at below capacity could be utilized for retraining and perhaps even retraining facilities established in factories now closed down.⁴⁷

There is also a general concern about the ability of TAFE teachers to maintain course relevance in many areas given the rate of technological change. Irrelevant courses, or those with out-dated content and methods, are incompatible with a philosophy of recurrent education. Such courses will not appeal to people requiring new skills and will hamper TAFE's potential to provide an educational contribution to personal and skills development to the benefit of both individual and industry. Whether there is adequate up-to-date equipment and educational hardware for courses, within the bounds of what can reasonably be provided, and whether it is being used, are difficult questions. While there have been major advances in this respect, complaints are still common that educational technology resources are not being sufficiently used by teachers, or that lack of support staff in computerized areas such as food trades and services courses prevents full use being made of available systems.

Another factor which restricts the opportunity of TAFE teachers to maintain technological relevance and competence is that, given the cost and rate of technological change, it is economically impossible to install up to date technology associated with many areas of industry in education institutions. This adds further to the probability that without counter-measures, there will be a growing divergence between skills training in the workforce and TAFE education. Some TAFE teachers speak of students informing teachers of latest trends in a particular industry.

Greater opportunity for staff to gain practical experience in industry through a range of methods and knowledge of new practices should be provided, given that "high technology industries in particular often have a distinct advantage, in both staff and facilities, over traditional educational institutions in developing recurrent education programs relevant to this technology".⁴⁸ This again points to the need for teachers to be involved in a process of mutual co-operation between teachers, unions and industry on recurrent educational ideals for students and teachers.

Teachers therefore need recurrent education both in educational and industrial techniques and in content. There is widespread concern that in the case of TAFE teachers neither need is being sufficiently met.

Recurrent Education of TAFE Teachers: Educational and Industrial. Clearly the recurrent education of TAFE teachers is a central issue, but no research has been undertaken into TAFE teachers' attitudes to it or its influence on their teaching. If recurrent education is to

provide a basis by which individuals and organisations can cope with continuous multi-dimensional change, then educators and educational institutions themselves must develop their own continuous learning systems to allow them to cope with the changing environment. The development of such systems ... raises new and complex employment and industrial relations issues which cannot be resolved without considerable research and informed discussion by members of teachers' organisations.⁴⁹

The recent Victorian Technical Colleges Federated Staff Association's submission to the Victorian Minister for Education argued that recent developments in course design including diversification and specialisation, student heterogeneity, organizational change and developments in technology have resulted in the need for greater levels of teacher skills and teacher responsibilities.⁵⁰ When these factors are coupled with others, such as the need for knowledge of learning modes in adults, knowledge of managerial skills by senior administrators, and the ideals of recurrent education then the force of this argument is increased. It led Fordham and Ainley in their evaluation of TAFE staff development to conclude that "the expected role of staff has changed greatly College staff now must be skilled in a wide variety of areas ... many of which have not been thought in the past to be necessary." They considered two essential questions: Do TAFE staff possess these necessary skills? and, if not, can staff attain the necessary expertise?⁵¹

Further research is needed to help answer these questions. The available studies into teacher characteristics raise but do not resolve some important issues about attitudes. There is a limited amount of information on some characteristics of TAFE teachers. The Tertiary Education Commission has published information on type of appointment, salary, authority, year of service, initial teacher training qualification and duty hours and nature of duties of teachers.⁵² Information on length of previous experience, relevant non-teaching experience, teaching and non-teaching qualifications, and age of staff is also available.⁵³ Demographic data (sex, age, country of birth and qualification, type of qualification, and socio-economic background); details of TAFE service (length of service, tenure, field and stream of teaching, and previous employment); and working patterns of interest, can be gained from the Williams Committee report,⁵⁴ from a working paper by John Bowden⁵⁵ and a 1979 TAFE Teacher Survey.⁵⁶ Both the Fleming and Williams surveys show similar results for many variables. The Fleming survey, for example, showed that 47.6 per cent of TAFE teachers worked in the trades apprenticeship and post-apprenticeship areas; and that the average age of TAFE teachers was 40.7 years compared to the average age of government system school teachers of 32 years.⁵⁷ This leads Fordham and Ainley to conclude that:

.... in the main these teachers will have experienced relatively traditional forms of teaching in their own education and ... many will not have been in close contact with the changing emphases in education during the late 1960s.

These authors conclude that the values and attitudes of many TAFE teachers would be consistent with those of traditional educational systems and may prevent these teachers accepting many Kangan Committee and post Kangan ideas and practices.⁵⁸ This assumption, and how many TAFE teachers it can be directed to, remains untested. Other information complicates this assumption: there is a growing group of teachers trained in institutions other than TAFE many of whom have come from secondary school teaching to involve themselves in preparatory courses; about one-third of TAFE teachers have a bachelor's degree and one-fifth a diploma; and younger teachers who have entered TAFE recently are less likely to have become qualified in a TAFE institution than older and more experienced colleagues.⁵⁹ It would be interesting to assess the effect of these younger graduates on teaching methods, on course types and on curriculum, and to compare their attitudes on post Kangan TAFE philosophy with those of older teachers.

The adequacy of two aspects of the recurrent education of TAFE teachers is relevant here. The first is that of TAFE teachers' education, and the second concerns staff development. The TAFE Staff Development Advisory Committee Report (Fleming Report) of 1978 contained two major recommendations which are important to this study. It argued that TAFE teachers' education studies should not include a "liberal studies" component such as an academic literacy course; and secondly, that advanced technical studies related to personal teaching specialities have no place in a teacher preparation program.⁶⁰ This Committee's views on technical training and re-training for teachers are particularly relevant to the importance of teachers being able to maintain course relevance in a time of rapid change.

These recommendations have been criticised for advocating too narrow a view of TAFE teacher preparation by allegedly ignoring broad professional education and overemphasising teaching skills. In March, 1979, Fleming replied that his committee had been misinterpreted on both the technical and professional education issues. His report did not ignore the need for continual technical development of TAFE teachers, he said. Regardless of qualifications and experience, all TAFE teachers need to keep up to date with the rapidly changing technology they are teaching, and continually develop their knowledge and experience. However, this function should be met by staff development programs, and is not a proper function of an initial course of teacher preparation. Fleming also pointed out that the report did not ignore the need for professional education studies and did include the study of education in a list of essential elements. Nevertheless, many courses especially in liberal studies "have aims and objectives which take no account of the nature of the TAFE teacher". This particularly applies to courses "transplanted from elsewhere in the college syllabus to TAFE teachers' preparation courses".⁶¹ Many liberal studies courses offered to TAFE teachers

are those offered to primary and secondary student teachers who have just left school. Some of these courses are conducted by lecturers who have little understanding of TAFE and TAFE teaching TAFE teacher education institutions must accept the challenge to justify the reasons for offering all courses This would involve an evaluation of the methods of presentation, the appropriateness and range of curricula ... and the suitability of lecturers.⁶²

Some commentators have argued that there "appears to be some basic agreement" on the issue of liberal studies, and that background subjects should be taught with a TAFE orientation to assist the transition of the new TAFE teachers from industry to teaching.⁶³ Others have said that there has been widespread recognition by TAFE teacher educators of the maturity, motivation and high academic standards of most beginning TAFE teachers.⁶⁴

If the further education of TAFE teachers in the areas identified by Fleming are matters for staff development, then needs in these areas are not being met. Fordham and Ainley's study of the Victorian submissions for funding in 1978 and the 1978 half-year accountability statements showed that although the focus of individual activities was not narrow, the overall thrust of the programs was directed to the teachers' improvement of classroom practices with aims generally related to staff members' teaching performance. Visits to industrial or commercial businesses made up 7.3 percent of activities, though the period of placement and type of activity is not outlined. This raises the question of the ease with which staff can make effective contact with industry and commerce so that they may keep abreast of current trends.⁶⁵ TAFE institutions cannot confine continuing educational activities for teachers and for students within the boundaries of the colleges if they are to meet recurrent educational needs. Current educational links with industry have not been sufficiently established to add to TAFE teachers' continuing knowledge of change in the work place, or their staff development. In some streams and courses, however, TAFE activities are being actively offered outside colleges.

TAFE recurrent staff development programs still tend to be method-bound and essentially pedagogical instead of androgogical in approach. Secondly, because for most staff members they comprise primarily conferences, seminars, or course attendance,⁶⁶ they do not meet the need for recurrent technical or professional learning or development in teaching skills. Some further problems are the following: with a few important exceptions, the programs are not integrated with initial teachers' preparation, or systematically related to manpower planning in TAFE so that decisions can be made about the implications of technological change and industry needs for both curriculum development and staff education on an integrated basis. In addition, and perhaps most important, there is little evidence of the identification of professional and personal needs of staff at different stages of a TAFE teacher's career to assist teachers to cope with different types of problems at different times. Staff development should be seen "as a staged and complementary process across the span of a TAFE teacher's career".⁶⁷ Finally, The Kangan philosophy of self-paced student learning implies that different teaching techniques will have to be incorporated with teacher education programs. Different colleges and States again seem to have approached the challenge Kangan made on this issue in different ways. Self-paced learning and an associated educational technology have not been accepted to the extent Kangan hoped for. Clearly teacher attitudes to this question need to be researched, along with current practices, if answers to questions such as whether teachers are conservative in views on teaching techniques or see self-paced learning threatening to job security are to be provided.

In the last few years an interest in the methodology and concepts associated with teaching adults has become evident in Australia. This work has drawn on American and European work, particularly that of M. Knowles and R. Dave.⁶⁸ However, it has probably influenced adult education, defined as the non-school or less-formal educational sector,⁶⁹ more than TAFE. This may be because many teachers in adult education have extensive experience of working with adults in a less formal situation, and have become naturally receptive to arguments for a different teaching methodology. The extent to which this argument applies to TAFE educators is unknown.

The theory and techniques of helping adults learn has been given new force and direction by Knowles' concept of andragogy, defined as the art and science of leading adult learning. Knowles argues that learning theory has been derived from studies of learning by children and animals. These theories have been habitually applied to learning by children in conditions of compulsory attendance. Knowles does not suggest that children and adults learn in different ways; however, he argues that different conditions influence adult and child learning affecting factors such as motivation.

Others have periodically pointed to the importance of such an argument for TAFE teachers. Ford, for example, in 1974 argued that:

We know very little about how adults learn. Almost all of our learning research is on young people - maybe 3 to 18 years. Where are the educational innovation programs for adults?... What do we know about the problems of people who have spent say twenty years,

for example, in an abattoir which closes down and they are sent along to a relearning program? We know abysmally little.⁷⁰

Literature on adult learning, and adult teaching techniques concentrates on five main points. These are as follows:

1. That adult experience, perceptions, needs and interests, and/or mental processes should be considered when developing courses and in classroom interaction. Adult experiential and cognitive factors should be considered. For example, it is often argued that the high number of adult TAFE enrolments shows the need for teachers to consider the varied interests of adults including previous or present employment; higher personal motivation and certainty about course direction and outcome; greater ability of adults to plan and direct their own work towards mutually agreed upon goals; more firmly held values than younger students; and a greater expectation by adult students that they will be treated as equals in classroom management situations and that their contribution and background will be valued.⁷¹
2. That adults should be involved in course formulation and in decisions about what to learn and how. There should be an effective degree of self directive and self-paced learning and discovery-based, individualized programs.
3. There is a predisposition towards, and should be access to, recurrent education for adults. People have different needs to be met at different times in their lives.
4. Learning should be seen as a co-operative venture based on a relationship of mutual respect and value between learner and teacher.
5. Teachers of adults should by example show their commitment to non-didactic teaching techniques.⁷²

Although there are no studies of the issue, courses which do not take account of adult perceptions, needs and interests still probably predominate. In addition, there is no formal opportunity for adult students to contribute to course content: centrally determined curriculum provides no opportunity for student participation in course design. Thought needs to be given to whether andragogy can be reconciled with the need for consideration of changing technology in course formulation, given that, in general, centralised State planning services are attempting to relate technology and curriculum at present.

However the concept of andragogy should not be adopted uncritically. There is a very important definitional problem with the concept itself, and also with associated terms such as 'self regulating', 'self paced' and 'self directed' learning. Also, the conflicting subjective assessments of the extent to which TAFE teachers take account of andragogical characteristics in their teaching points to the need for research into the issue. The definitional distinction between pedagogy and andragogy can be questioned. All the characteristics of andragogy have formed the basis of progressive educational criticisms of

traditional pedagogical practices for almost a century in Western countries. To argue that conclusions derived from teaching adults should be applied to teaching children and that adults should not be treated as children ignores the principles behind a long tradition of philosophical, historical, sociological and psychological arguments that the teaching of children should be reformed. Certainly a study of colleges such as Richmond Technical College, Victoria, which has substantially altered teaching practice, and elsewhere, would provide much needed factual information to be considered in conjunction with the definitional issue. The lack of adequate research on this issue is a glaring omission in an educational system supposedly based on the need for periodic re-entry. This general question therefore has important but unresolved implications for a philosophy of recurrent education in TAFE and for TAFE teachers.

THE TAFE SYSTEM

Access to the system. Perhaps the major factor restricting access to TAFE by adults is the widespread distinction still drawn by teachers, employers, employees, and the general community between technical and further education. Access by adults wishing to enter or re-enter courses is often still seen in terms of easing entry to 'hobby' or 'interest' courses in Streams 5 and 6 courses. The Kangan Report rejected this separation and said that the term 'further education' should "embrace all forms of vocational and adult education" The committee realistically believed that this view would not be accepted quickly and hoped that 'further education' would be substituted for 'technical education' no later than 1980.⁷³

A major difficulty in assessing progress on this issue is the divergence of policy, practice and structure between States, and, particularly in Victoria, within States. Victoria, with the most decentralized system and, outside of the A.C.T., the most autonomy in colleges, has a divergence of approaches to adult entry and re-entry. Some colleges such as Frankston Technical College have established an extensive network catering for adult entry to Streams 5 and 6. Footscray Technical College has begun courses for some unionists. The history of this initiative is instructive for an examination of a relationship between TAFE, employees and employer based on the need for recurring educational opportunities for adults either employed or not. Courses in migrant and remedial English were begun as a result of co-operation between the college and the Amalgamated Metal Workers' and Shipwrights' Union. The Union advertise the courses on noticeboards and pay members' enrolment fees. Further courses are planned in basic literacy and numeracy skills and possibly history of labour movements, economics and accountancy, interpersonal relationships and industrial safety as a result of further meetings including one between a college representative and twenty-five union shop stewards. Arguments are common that TAFE should be responsive to management requests for short term courses, or industry needs in longer courses. There are many examples of this influence. Footscray College provides an example of TAFE responsiveness to an employee initiative. Footscray College has strong informal relationships with local industry and unions leading to short courses such as industry consultancy work, robotics and the use of numerical control machines. Other colleges, such as Collingwood Technical College, also react to management perception of course needs in ways other than formal industry

involvement in trade course formulation. There is still widespread teacher belief, in 1980, that the Industrial Training Commission, despite formal pronouncements, acts as the major obstacle to effective adult re-entry to Stream 3 courses. Bone's argument, in 1975, that nowhere in TAFE is discrimination in access more evident than in skill training for apprentices, is equally true today. The central problems of adult entry to trade courses are the lack of alternative access other than through the indenture system, the united opposition of employer and employee groups to widening access age and disagreements about an appropriate adult wage.⁷⁴

It is important to note that differentiation between both aspects of the TAFE title may accurately describe practice in a college, but that even if not, the very distinction referred to in a handbook or elsewhere may in itself act as a barrier to adult access in Streams 2 to 4. If lifelong education is properly to be seen as a continuum, then the term "second chance" with its implication on initial lack of educational success must be rejected in favour of the view that a person's education at any time is inevitably incomplete.

If the concept of unrestricted access as a central feature of a philosophy of recurrent education in TAFE is to mean anything, barriers inhibiting re-entry by older people into Streams 1 to 4 courses must be removed. Factors inhibiting access need to be related to teachers' role and function. Firstly, adult entry to colleges is sometimes more difficult than handbooks state or infer. Secondly, ease of access, though a necessary condition, is not in itself a sufficient condition for an increased rate to adult re-entry. Formal course prerequisites are only one type of barrier to adult access. Practical experience by teachers in implementing the Schools Commission supplementary grants program, and in TAFE, has shown that ease of access in terms of prerequisites and provision of facilities and courses does not itself gain increased adult participation in schools and colleges at any level. Provision of access is not just a matter of removing barriers to availability and entry; in a very important sense once entry to the course has been gained, the real issues in access to education emerge.

Clearly the motivation and attitudes of adults towards TAFE and themselves are centrally important: "The basic fact is that access of itself is of little use without motivation and mere ease of access itself is not a motivation".⁷⁵ TAFE teachers' attitudes and policies as an inhibitor of adult motivation have been widely recognised. Furthermore,

Inherent in the rate of development of knowledge is the inevitable consequence that a particular course might be out of date or even obsolete. If this suggestion is tenable, can it be claimed that a student has been educated because he has been admitted to a course? Consequently, the concept of access to education must include the regular review of curricula.⁷⁶

One major development in TAFE colleges' co-operation with industry is the widespread offering of short, specific purpose courses. There is also a growing belief that manpower planning has a place in course development if a course is not to be quickly made redundant by changes in industry. And even if a course does contain current and relevant content, teaching

methods used will also affect access. The possibility of flexible time arrangements to cover difficulties in attendance through shift work, accident, or personal problems, of allowing for individual rates of learning, use of aids, and treating older students (and younger) as adults and equals, will all affect motivation and success. Access has been defined, consistent with early TAFE reports, as removal of barriers and assisting educational choices. If adults seeking recurrent education decide that course content and teaching methods are unsuitable and uninteresting, and either discontinue courses or do not enroll, then removal of barriers to selection and entry have not achieved the goal of open access to recurrent education in TAFE.

Three points can be made therefore. Firstly, the argument developed here places primary emphasis on the TAFE teacher's competence. The education and re-education of TAFE teachers both in course content and teaching methods is a necessary condition for adequate provision of recurrent education opportunities in TAFE. Curriculum development requires careful planning and organization, an ability to achieve learning given a wide range of individual needs and abilities, and a knowledge of content and processes including a "professional educationalist's grasp of concepts of education".⁷⁷

Secondly, little research in Australia has been carried out on TAFE teachers' attitudes to these issues, or on actual teaching practices in colleges.

Thirdly, the successful application of the concept of recurrent education in TAFE necessitates a rethinking by employer and employee organizations of the effects of technological change and redundancy of employees. Unlike some other countries, management has no obligation or tradition of negotiation with unions on retraining or re-employing people made redundant; neither have unions been traditionally concerned with this issue. If TAFE courses are to adopt the philosophy of recurrent education by successfully appealing to and assisting adults, close co-operation between TAFE teachers and employee and employer groups is necessary. At present there is little such co-operation in some areas, and domination of courses by industry in other areas.

Entry and Re-entry into the TAFE System. The removal of barriers to access was seen in the early reports as an indispensable element of the philosophy of allowing periodic re-entry into the educational system. Recurrent education was defined as the distribution of education over the lifespan of the individual in a recurring way with a close relationship between work and leisure.⁷⁸ In speaking of recurrent education in TAFE it is essential (as outlined earlier) to differentiate between initial entry for young adults from 16-29 years on the one hand, and re-entry to TAFE by adults who have undertaken courses of study at either TAFE or other post-secondary institutions, or late entry to TAFE by adults who seek further education for whatever reasons. If TAFE is to provide recurring educational opportunities, then it must be concerned with more than initial education either full-time or in conjunction with employment. Clearly by definition it must provide part-time or full-time educational opportunities for adult members of the workforce who need to re-train to maintain awareness of current or anticipated developments in

their employment, or whose positions are made redundant by technological change, or who anticipate redundancy, or who develop new interests.

It is important to relate an assessment of whether TAFE institutions are acting as recurrent education institutions to a study of TAFE teachers. TAFE teacher attitudes to recurrent education, to teaching techniques appropriate to adults, to course development and educational relationships with industry and unions, and their attitudes to their own continuing education will help determine whether TAFE meets the recurrent education ideals. Yet little is known about TAFE teachers' attitudes to these or other matters. Equally, little research has been carried out into teachers' practices in classrooms. Maintenance of course relevance in an era of rapid technological change is now receiving more attention. If adults are re-entering TAFE colleges, this lack of knowledge has major implications for TAFE teachers' attitudes and practices. Such questions as the following are unanswered: Do teachers see catering for and encouraging adult re-entry as a major role of TAFE? What practices do colleges adopt to encourage re-entry? What is the effect of adult entry and re-entry on course design and teaching practices? Of greater concern is the difficulty of determining the current level of adult re-entry, or answers to many related issues such as reasons for re-entry, from current public TAFE statistics, though some information on this issue has been collected but not collated in at least some States. Knowledge about the extent to which adults are re-entering the educational system through TAFE and about related teacher attitudes and practices needs to be gained if we are to determine whether TAFE is proceeding according to a recurrent education philosophy. This information is equally important if TAFE teachers' role in this philosophy is to be made clear.

Current Statistics. Statistics on enrolments by stream, type of enrolment, field and authority for 1978 may be obtained from the TEC document, "Selected TAFE Statistics 1978", produced in January, 1980, and for 1979 from TAFE departments. Further information is presented in the TEC reports for the 1979-81 Triennium vols. 1 and 2, 1978, and updated volumes since. Total TAFE enrolments in 1978 were 870,972 students with 45,193 full-time and 770,372 part-time, with a total projected enrolment of 1,000,000 students by 1980.⁷⁹ Enrolments in vocational and preparatory courses (Streams 1 to 5) rose markedly by between six and eight percent between 1975 and 1977 when growth of enrolments in other post-secondary sectors declined sharply. Full time enrolments also rose faster than part time enrolments.⁸⁰

To what extent are adults who re-enter the post-secondary education system through TAFE represented in these high part-time and full-time enrolments in Streams 1 to 5? Victorian 1979 figures show only 1,678 full-time students 21 years of age and over, compared to 11,362 under 21 years. Over one half of the over 21 year old students were between 21 and 29 years old. Clearly there is virtually no full-time adult re-entry in Victoria.⁸¹

The situation differs, however, in South Australia with 735 full-time enrolments under 21 years, and 627 21 years and over.⁸²

The pattern of part-time enrolments is different, with 65,488 part-time students 21 years or over in Victoria, compared to 68,156 under 21 years in 1979.⁸³

The South Australian figures show a proportionally greater part-time enrolment for people 21 years and over with 73,346 in this category, and 28,526 under 21 years. The TEC has not provided figures for Australian TAFE enrolments by age, beyond 1976, when they were as follows: Under 21 (42% of enrolments), 21-29 years (30%), 30 years and over (28%).⁸⁴

There are no means from available figures to determine the proportion of adults of any age entering the education system through TAFE, compared with the number re-entering post-secondary education for the first time. Even the figures which are available need careful analysis. For example, Victorian figures revealed 668 part-time adults in apprenticeship training courses but of these 655 males are in the horticulture area.

No conclusions about the implications of adult student re-entry or TAFE college encouragement of such re-entry for TAFE teachers can be drawn. Without further research, it is not possible to determine whether there are trends towards recurrent education in practice in colleges, with consequent implications for teachers, or not. This research could be carried out by investigating enrolment patterns and teacher practices and perceptions of recurrent education in a small number of colleges, on a similar principle to the Mt. Druitt study, or research could be undertaken on a State-wide basis. Some important information which would enable an assessment of such aspects of recurrent education on the level of adult re-entry is already being collected by State TAFE departments. This information could serve as preliminary to a study of the implications of recurrent education for TAFE teachers. However, where it is collected, much is not being processed or evaluated.

Full-time Training. There is a growing view in many TAFE colleges and in journals agreeing with Kangan, Coughlan and the Williams Committee that TAFE should provide more full-time courses without insisting even in apprenticeship courses that work experience be made either a prerequisite or a concurrent requirement.⁸⁵ The old issue of income for adult students is being reconsidered in Victoria by unions and the Industrial Training Commission;⁸⁶ however, it is an important issue in adult access to other streams. Coughlan has also shown the major implications for curriculum development in TAFE of the Williams Committee suggestion that TAFE should increase its relative provision of full-time courses. Such full-time courses would have to provide present educational content and an alternative to job training and experience. This would have significant implications for curriculum development by TAFE teachers depending on the extent of local autonomy in course development.⁸⁷ There is also a community held view that autonomy for TAFE and higher status for TAFE colleges and courses may lead to restrictions in access to TAFE. Kangan pointed to access problems which might arise from course length and complexity more suited to more academic forms of education,⁸⁸ and many teachers have applied this argument to the question of status. The issue of the future of trade training is complicated further by the possibility of the establishment of trade training centres to compensate for the "inability of many employers to provide adequate on-the-job training".⁸⁹ The Williams Committee also

endorsed the principles underlying the scheme of trade training proposed by the National Training Council, which proposes a complementary system of trade training for adults.⁹⁰ This has been seen by TAFE teachers as a threat to the future role of TAFE in playing a vital part in the improvement of the apprenticeship system⁹¹ and the TAFE system itself. The possible extension of TAFE's involvement in full-time courses has important implications for access to adults seeking retraining or further education in TAFE, and for occupational mobility.

There has been little research into teacher attitudes on this question despite the first TAFE Commission report arguing, as did earlier reports, that the new focus increasingly must be on adapting the existing labour force by upgrading existing skills and transferring workers from declining to new skills. The Coughlan Committee's prediction that TAFE institutions would be of central importance to the practical application of these concepts of recurrent education⁹² has yet to be fulfilled.

CONCLUSION

The simple appealing slogan "recurrent" or "further education", then, "masks many difficult and complex individual and organizational problems for educators".⁹³ The central problem is whether TAFE is meeting its responsibilities to provide meaningful adult re-entry to courses at all levels. Perhaps lack of research information on adult re-entry and lack of widespread debate on related concerns indicates a general lack of interest on the issue which the first three TAFE reports saw as fundamental. If better access for adults is to be provided then research and discussion should take place on three ways in particular in which TAFE teacher attitudes can act as barriers to access.

The first of these is adult learning techniques. In 1976 Ford wrote of questions in TAFE "which need to be studied and discussed if we are not to waste the human and financial resources available". Two such issues were: the most appropriate learning methods for adults; and programs to prepare teachers for adult students entering a previous teenage student environment.⁹⁴ The argument by Ford, Kangan and many others that experienced teachers should be given leave to carry out action-oriented research on such issues has not had a significant effect on the level of TAFE research funding. The withdrawal of TAFE from funding the research activity of individual researchers "struck at the very heart of one of the (ACOTAFE) Committee's basic proposals".⁹⁵ Even the limited research into TAFE teachers' attitudes generally ignores the issue of staff attitudes towards the special needs of adult TAFE students and development of different teaching techniques. Finally, teacher attitudes towards the TAFE system and towards teacher re-training may repay careful research.

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88. Kangan, op. cit., p.vi.
89. Coughlan, op. cit., p. 6. Coughlan argues that "such centres need not be a threat to TAFE".
90. Williams Report, Chapter 7, 575 and R.8.21.
91. "....the National Training Council .. is .. one of the major threats to TAFE in the 1980s. Unless the TAFE system is prepared to change and react to pressures for industry to alter the present form of training of skilled tradesmen the National Training Council will develop training programs in competition with TAFE. In fact this is already occurring." J. Upsen, President's Report to the 17th TAFETAA Conference, Melbourne, January, 1980.
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COMMENTARY, PART 2 - THE THEORY AND PRACTICE OF
RECURRENT EDUCATION AND THE TEACHING ROLE

Mal Hewitson

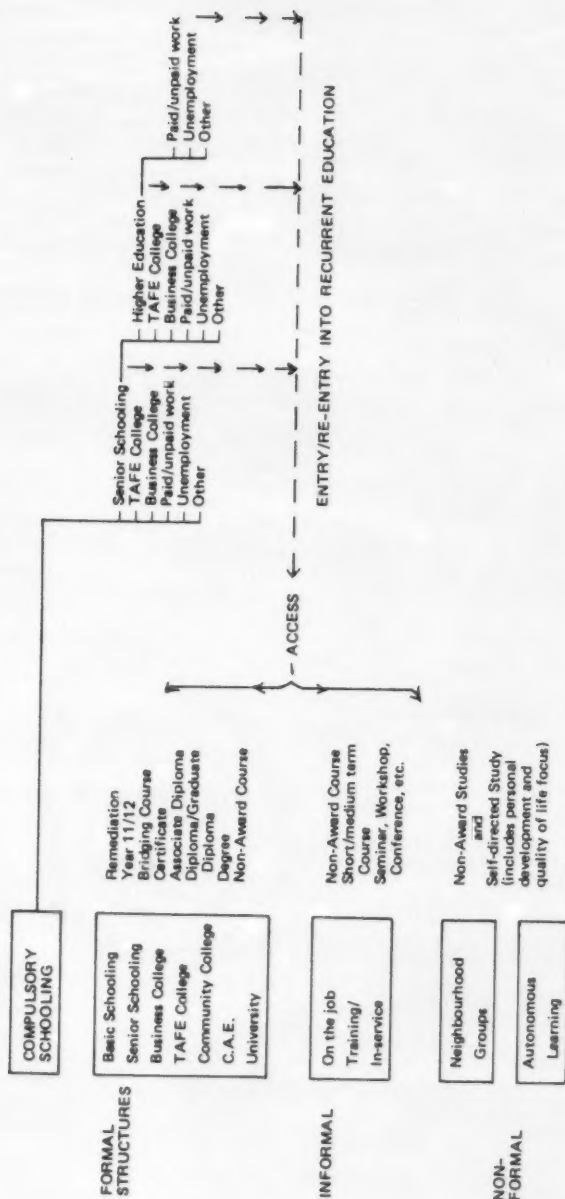
In this section further commentary is made on a number of issues raised in the papers and during the seminar, following reflection by the author. Some overlap with material introduced in the commentary to Part 1 may occur, as the broad implications for teaching drawn from discussion on the changing societal context form a backdrop for this section of the report.

As a starting point, an attempt is made to conceptualise the components of recurrent education and their relationships in the form of a diagram (Figure 1).

Reading across the top of Figure 1 it can be seen that, after the years of compulsory schooling, exiting students go on to senior schooling, take TAFE courses, become paid or unpaid workers, join the ranks of the unemployed or enter some other condition of life. Those who proceed to senior schooling but do not complete Years 11 and 12 also follow one of the remaining pathways open to them. Those who complete senior schooling move into higher education or TAFE, become paid or unpaid workers, become unemployed, or, again, enter some other condition of life. Those who do not complete higher education courses also follow one of the remaining pathways; those who do complete their studies become paid or unpaid workers, or unemployed, or other. While it is not shown in the diagram, there is no difficulty in accommodating part-time study within the schema presented.

The first few columns in Figure 1 present in a general way the formal, informal and non-formal structures for and the associated provision of recurrent education activities. Note that life experiences and incidental learnings not structured by external bodies or autonomous individuals are not seen as a function of recurrent education, though of course their influence is inevitable and pervasive. For present purposes, the formal and informal structures are of concern here.

The key to recurrent education is depicted in Figure 1 as access to the diverse available recurrent education activities associated with various structures. In an unrestricted sense, this means that a blurring of the distinctions between education, work and leisure would occur (alternation, in Sommerlad's (p.97) terms): people would be able to enter or re-enter the appropriate recurrent education activity from any post-compulsory schooling condition of life at any time. Such entry/re-entry could be initiated either by external authorities (e.g., an employer) in the interests of organisational needs, or by individuals or groups of people wanting to take advantage of "second chance" opportunities for education, to update their knowledge and skills, to re-train for alternative occupations, or to develop and grow personally and culturally. Unrestricted access also means that provision of full-time, part-time and external (distance) recurrent education would be adequate. It means, too, that barriers and constraints would be



Note: Life experiences and incidental learnings not structured by external authorities or autonomous individuals run all through formal, informal and non-formal learning.

FIGURE 1: Components of Recurrent Education and their Relationships

overcome, whether associated with legal, industrial and professional restrictions, or attitudes and expectations of employing authorities, or formal requirements of educational institutions, or the individual's perceptions and commitments, and so on. Finally, it means that disadvantage imposed by prior lack of academically-oriented success in educational institutions would be eliminated.

Clearly the picture painted here is based on the model of recurrent education as a radical reformist strategy, i.e., as something more than a logically developed response to needs arising from changing social, economic, technological and labour market contexts. Its overall aim is not only to ensure that such needs are met - more fundamentally, it aims to help people take more responsibility for their lives by replacing feelings of powerlessness, cynicism and apathy with knowledge and understanding, a sense of purpose, and heightened self-esteem leading to further personal development in or out of the workplace. Equally clearly, restructuring the educational, social and economic fabrics of society along the lines implied in Figure 1 (i.e., implementing the reformist model of recurrent education) faces considerable problems.

First, recurrent education is not a self-sufficient proposal but depends on support and commitment from people in spheres of life other than education if it is to achieve its purposes. The formal and informal structures are particularly dependent on government policies regarding resource allocation and funding, which in turn are strongly influenced by social and economic factors and the vested interests of powerful pressure groups. At the professional level of higher education, Sommerlad emphasises the complementary nature of restrictions to access imposed by tertiary institutions (e.g., academic qualifications) and professional associations (e.g., in order to maintain self-regulation by the profession), both legitimated by the laws of the land. In the TAFE sector, Buxton and Keating (p. 214) show that, although formal entry requirements are being systematically reduced, other factors such as course length, timetabling, mode of delivery and student income continue to restrict entry; and at the trades level, access to apprenticeships is still quite rigidly controlled (pp. 204; 214).

The question also arises as to the extent to which recurrent education can be systematised or institutionalised without losing the necessary elasticity of response to individual needs if it is to promote rather than inhibit personal/professional growth. Some degree of co-ordination of recurrent education provision would seem to be essential. but too great an emphasis on demarcation of boundaries might well conflict with the principle that the best interests of individuals and the community are served by utilising the institution most suited in terms of access to provide the service.

Another pertinent question concerns the education and competence of those who are to be the recurrent educators. Some of the problems confronting TAFE on this issue which are documented by Buxton and Keating (p. 211) are discussed below.

It might also be asked whither recurrent education leads. In teaching, for example, it seems that despite a massive allocation of resources to inservice activities over the last six or eight years, there is little

evidence that the quality of teaching has consequently improved or that inservice has been beneficial in terms of student outcomes. One general purpose of inservice teacher education is to initiate change and renewal in schools, yet a major thrust of Pettit's (p.127) work is that strongly embedded role perceptions persist; similarly much of the research reported by Evans (pp.141; 146) is disheartening, though the way ahead may now be clearer and viewed with some optimism.

However, given that there is still no universal definition of the good teacher and that the study of "pedagogy" is clouded with uncertainties, even contradictions, some doubts about the efficacy of inservice measured in terms of teaching performance and student outcomes must remain.

On the other hand, it can be argued that if inservice education is a necessary condition of the teacher's ongoing professional/personal growth, then participation should be mandatory rather than voluntary. Indeed, Sommerlad (p.111) notes that although the Report of the National Inquiry into Teacher Education (1980) did not recommend compulsion, its acceptance is foreshadowed. Presumably re-certification and promotion would be dependent upon meeting minimum requirements, as now occurs, for example, in Florida (Robinson and Mosrie, 1979). On the other hand, Taylor (1978, p.206) reports that in Europe, the creation of more opportunities for participation is preferred to compulsion except in a few places (e.g., Sweden and some Swiss Cantons).

An associated problem concerns when teachers should participate, a problem which the above Report (1980, p.80) resolved by concluding that attendance should occur both when schools are in session and out of school hours, and by recommending for teachers at least five days of inservice education outside of school hours in each year and one term's full-time paid release after every seven years of service. In the introductory paper by Beare and van Raay (p.11), inservice education is firmly located as part and parcel of the teacher's job and it is argued that it must therefore be accommodated within the normal context of the teacher's day.

There are two related issues here, one to do with the teacher's role and other with motivations to participate in inservice education.

With regard to the teacher's role, it has been suggested that the changes which have occurred over the last decade or so have been in the nature of refinements and adjustments to an instrumentalist conception of teaching incorporating teacher-directed and teacher-dominated classroom interaction, heavy reliance on set texts and rote learning, and use of exams to sort students and socialise them in preparation for their future social and economic statuses. The refinements have led to a conception of the teacher as an expert provider of specialist services and facilitation of appropriate learning environments, with less teacher domination in the classroom, and more use of a wider range of curriculum resources. Emphasis on exams persists, however, and schooling as a sorting mechanism remains virtually intact.

Accepting that movement from instrumentalist towards expert provider is generally taking place in teaching, the proposition is (a) that it is occurring relatively slowly, and (b) that, in any case, it is not enough

to meet the changing demands on the teacher's role. Pettit (p.122) argues that what is now needed is not refinement but a redefinition of role so that the teacher becomes a sensitive provider of process-oriented learning activities and remains responsive to the changing societal context. Any move towards this changed conception of the teaching role is likely to prove more difficult to achieve in practice than incremental adjustments because teachers will perceive that it involves both some deskilling and the need to acquire a whole range of interpersonal, analytical and participative skills (Pettit, p 125). Moreover, the pay-offs for changing may not be clearly evident to teachers.

Pressures to change the teacher's role to one of "sensitive service" rise on all sides: the demand for stronger accountability procedures; the apparent necessity to involve parents, employers and the community more meaningfully in school functioning; the press to innovate, introduce different teaching strategies, and use modern technology in the classroom; the press to revise curriculum content, integrate knowledge, counteract the evils of society and include new areas such as work experience, computer education, legal education, death education, etc.; the emergence of school-based decision making with its related demands on curriculum development, student assessment, school evaluation and renewal, etc., and concomitant shifts in authority relationships; the obvious desirability of individualisation of instruction; the need to cope with multi-culturalism in the classroom, with the disadvantaged and underprivileged, and more generally, with a student population exhibiting different characteristics from earlier generations. Added to these pressures are the effects of actual resource restraints, the value conflicts which beset all proposals for change (including particularly what should be taught in schools and how it should be taught), the emotional involvement which characterises teaching as an occupation, and, perhaps, direct competition from the entertainment business with teaching.

The picture is clearly one of role overload. As Evans (p.140) puts it, teachers may be so fully occupied, even overcommitted, that they have little time or enthusiasm for the reflection and discussion which must inevitably accompany change. Indeed, they may already be suffering from "innovation fatigue". This is not to deny that some teachers and schools are coping with change spectacularly well, and Whitehead's study reports considerable success among the Orders which she researched. It does, however, help to explain why some teachers might seek the security of traditional structures, disciplines and methods in their work, and others to shelter behind an authoritarian approach. Actual levels of personal and professional competence are also involved: for some the stress of trying to cope may lead to mental and physical breakdown.

As a profession, it is understandable that teaching could be described as having a "siege mentality", seeing itself beleaguered on all sides by mounting pressures to change and entrenching itself against implicit threats to its functioning and status. Sommerlad's analysis suggests that support for the lengthening of pre-service teacher education is part of the general response of teacher organisations towards professionalisation, itself a mechanism for coping with pressure to change. In a nutshell, what the profession really seeks is to distance itself from the community and determine for itself the conditions and extent of change in the teaching role; and in fact, "sensitive service" approaches cannot be

defined in terms of the teacher's role alone: what will be needed is a renegotiation of the whole of the teacher's role-set.

In this respect, it is worth noting the experience of the Sisters in the teaching Orders reported by Whitehead because both teacher and administrator role-sets within the organisation appear to have been successfully renegotiated, though the process has taken time (some 15 years) and has not been accomplished without casualties. From strict allegiance to set routines, insularity, and unquestioning obedience to omniscient and all-powerful superordinates, the Sisters are emerging with a new view of self, self-confidence, and a commitment to openness and tolerance. Structural supports have been developed to facilitate effective consultation, participation and acceptance of responsibility.

Although many of the descriptions used to describe the teaching Sisters in the mid-sixties might be applied to traditional teachers in government schools (e.g., Pettit, p.121), there are important differences between a teaching Order and teachers in other environments. For example, it is unlikely that an equivalent of the Vatican II decree would gain the same sort of acceptance among government school teachers as Vatican II did in the teaching Orders. The Orders were obliged to accept and act on it. Again, the religious and moral values of religious Orders are held in common by all members, and provide a fundamental frame of reference for all. In the teaching profession at large, however, marked value differences are commonplace on most issues.

On the other hand, it appears that the Tasmanian experience with inservice education for departmental teachers based on the three principles of collaboration (or power sharing), unity of purpose and sensitivity to school-based concerns has enjoyed a measure of real success in equipping experienced teachers with skills appropriate for a new conception of their role. No doubt other instances could be cited.

One of the prime ingredients for success in implementing change in schools is administrator attitudes and the establishment of a climate supportive of change. Following Evans (p.133), learning and behaviour problems among students need to be viewed as a professional problem, not as an indication of teacher failings. They should not be kept hidden from others but be shared as a group responsibility. The group here involves other professional support services as well as parents and community, and one of the tasks of school-based decision making is to make such involvement much more meaningful than it is now (Evans p.131). This would also help to break down the insularity of schools.

The problem, however, lies in obtaining meaningful involvement. As parents tend to be interested in their own child rather than students in general, one suggestion is that a public relations marketing approach could bear fruit, another that parents and teachers together participate in inservice activities, though Evans (p.144) reports research evidence indicating lack of popularity with latter approach.

Setting aside details as to whether some activities might be more appropriately included in preservice rather than inservice teacher education courses, the research evidence to date indicates that inservice activities are likely to be more effective if they focus on specific

school problems and engage functioning school groups; if they are oriented towards staff development and enhance rather than threaten the self-concept; if staff members are given a considerable say in drawing up the particular program; if the school and system administration lends full moral and practical support; and if external facilitator-consultants are used. There also appears to be general consensus that tertiary institutions are not appropriate places in which to run inservice programs other than courses carrying credit towards a formal qualification.

Evans (p.149) introduces one note of caution, however, by drawing attention to the fact that total concentration of effort on school and classroom issues as proposed by teachers may lead to parochialism and mental closure to events in the wider world. Similarly he notes the need for formal course work in tertiary institutions to deal with more than the day to day tasks of the school (p.147).

One of the strong and recurring themes appearing in the papers presented above is the desirability and usefulness of the external consultant-facilitator. Botsman (p.178) prefers the term "knowledge linker", but the role is essentially that of an external resource person with the knowledge and expertise to link (Pettit, p.125), facilitate (Whitehead, p.170), transact (Botsman, p.181), co-ordinate (Evans, p.152), and act as a teacher educator (Beare and van Raay, p.17).

Gaining the teachers' will to participate in inservice is another matter. In this regard, Botsman's focus on the barriers to participation which may be experienced by unmotivated as well as by highly motivated individuals complements Whitehead's psycho-sociological study of change within four religious teaching Orders. While a more detailed discussion on constraints and barriers is to be left to Part 3 of this report, it is worth referring quickly to the general areas inhibiting participation in recurrent education by teachers. They include social and economic barriers, competition between inservice and more salient activities, perceived self-image as a learner, inadequacy of information and guidance, and barriers perceived as institutionally-imposed (Botsman, p.185).

Clearly these and other responses of teachers to the pressures to reconceptualise their role explain in large part why teachers may resist change and choose not to participate in inservice education activities, and, as Botsman (p.185) notes, what needs to be known is under what conditions, if any, they would participate. For present purposes, however, the blunter questions are posed, namely: what rewards can teachers see themselves gaining from participation in inservice activities? Why should they choose to change?

Motivational forces may arise from two sources - the organisation and the individual. The organisation has the responsibility of providing extrinsic rewards to motivate individuals in such a manner that the needs of the organisation are met. With schools, this means that it is up to the system to create conditions which encourage teacher participation in inservice so that the challenges originating in the changing societal context can be appropriately accommodated during schooling. The

conventional encouragements to teachers have been salary increases resulting from higher formal academic qualifications and enhanced promotional prospects, the granting of leave to attend, and payment of costs associated with attendance. In times of contracting budgets and low teacher turnover, however, the conventional rewards to which teachers have been accustomed tend to disappear, and the funding of inservice costs and study leave cut. The pragmatic response of teachers may then depend on whether they perceive inservice participation as one means of at least holding the job they have, or at a lower level again, as a means of escaping temporarily from the classroom.

As mentioned earlier, the political-socio-economic philosophy adopted by governments is central in the above respects. Without labouring the point, Botsman (p.185) accepts as a major premise that formal government intervention directed towards increasing participation in recurrent education must become an established part of social policy.

The second source of motivational forces is the individual who may participate in inservice activities either to satisfy perceived career needs or to satisfy such psychological, higher order needs as the need for esteem, autonomy and self-fulfilment. It is the responsibility of those offering recurrent education to endeavour to provide such intrinsic rewards. For whether recurrent education, including inservice teacher education, is viewed as a reformist social strategy or as an instrument for adjusting more conservatively to changes in society, Whitehead's study alone reveals the significance of intrinsic rewards in the personal/professional growth of individuals.

Turning now to look briefly at the TAFE sector, it is proposed to enumerate a number of contrasts and comparisons between the school system and technical teaching roles in terms of the teacher work force, the curriculum and staff development. An advantage of this approach is that it brings together a number of the salient issues to which reference has already been made.

With regard to the teacher work force, the source of teachers for schools is mainly young adults who undertake tertiary education on completion of Year 12. Relatively few school teachers are mature age entrants. Technical teachers, on the other hand, are mainly drawn from the work force. They are adults with technical expertise and experience of industry who have changed their occupation but continue to identify strongly with their former association, not with the teaching profession. On average, they are about eight and a half years older than teachers in government schools (Buxton and Keating, p.209), but whereas the school teacher work force is aging, the system as a whole contracting and promotional prospects are dimming, the average age of TAFE teachers is falling, the system as a whole expanding, a promotional prospects are very bright. A particular difficulty facing TAFE in this respect is that new cohorts of entrants to teaching, being younger, have less work experience in industry than their older colleagues; and as they now tend to be more specialised in their skills, they also have a narrower view of industry as a whole.

The school system teacher emerges from three or four years of full-time higher education, qualified for probationary registration as a teacher.

The TAFE teacher completes two semester of higher education, interspersed with two semesters of teaching, and is not qualified for registration as a teacher. However, Buxton and Keating (p.209) point to growing numbers of TAFE teachers with higher academic qualifications - about one third now have a bachelor's degree and one fifth a diploma.

A considerable amount of research has been directed at discovering school teacher attitudes, role perceptions and motivations. Very little is known about TAFE teachers in these respects, and hence about their possible effects on TAFE teacher performance.

With regard to the curriculum, it is fair to say that school system teachers are concerned with the intellectual, social, physical, emotional and moral development of their students and that the orientation of the curriculum is largely liberal education flavoured with vocational preparation. By contrast, TAFE teachers seek to develop job skills in their students. The curriculum is a vocational preparation, with some liberal elements present, though not in the case of apprentice training (Buxton and Keating, p.204).

Some uncertainty exists about the school system curriculum - about what emphasis should be given to intellectual as opposed to social and emotional development, for example. What the TAFE curriculum should comprise is also unclear - the competition of the College of Advanced Education sector, industry's role in vocational training, especially in view of the costs of modern equipment, and the manpower needs of the economy cloud TAFE's role.

In terms of curriculum development, school systems rely on guidelines drawn up or certified by experts in the area and distributed to teachers for interpretation and implementation. At the secondary school level, the entrance requirements of tertiary institutions, the wishes of employers and the instrumentalist attitude of parents and students are influential in shaping what is taught. School-based curriculum development is a relatively recent phenomenon in Australian schools.

With TAFE, curriculum development necessarily involves co-operation with industry, employers and trade unions. Consensus can be difficult to obtain on such matters as length of courses, formal awards for graduates, etc. Despite discouragements which occur, TAFE teachers also need to keep up to date with modern technology and changes in industry, and some attempt to identify future trends is obviously desirable. TAFE students can simply leave classes or courses which they do not see as relevant. School students, on the other hand, constitute a captive audience.

As noted earlier, school system teachers appear to have widely adopted an "expert provider" approach to the teaching role. Modern technology, however, is still to be integrated into teaching methods as a general rule. Moreover, even senior school students are not generally accorded full value as persons.

TAFE teaching, too, may perhaps be characterised as traditional, conservative and method-bound (Buxton and Keating, p.211). Although modern technological resources are becoming increasingly available, the level of actual use by teachers is questionable (Buxton and Keating,

p.207). It also appears that full realisation of the fact that the teaching of adults requires particular teaching skills has yet to dawn on many TAFE teachers.

With regard to staff development in school systems, all that needs to be said here is that the changing societal context inevitably has an impact on schools and what society requires of them. The response of school systems to the challenge is in large part determined by the political-socio-economic philosophy and policies of the government of the day, and their support by the electorate.

The situation is different in TAFE in that it is a provider of recurrent education and is the logical place to mount the technical (re)training courses essential under fluid labour market conditions. Thus adequate provision for TAFE staff development activities accords with governmental priorities and funds are forthcoming. In addition, the expansion of the TAFE sector means that extrinsic rewards are available for teachers who participate in development programs. The relative influence of extrinsic and intrinsic motivational factors must await further research.

These comments serve to reintroduce the notion of barriers and constraints to teacher participation in inservice education, and ways of overcoming them. Scant attention has been paid to these aspects in the report to date, and one of the purposes of the following Part is precisely to bridge this gap.

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PART 3

PRESENT CONSTRAINTS AND FUTURE PROSPECTS

PART 3

PRESENT CONSTRAINTS AND FUTURE PROSPECTS

Mal Hewitson

INTRODUCTION

The purposes of this Part of the report are twofold. In the first section, an attempt is made to enumerate the barriers and constraints presently confronting recurrent teacher education and locate them by their source, i.e., according to whether they appear to have their origin in society generally, in school systems, in tertiary institutions, or in teachers as individual personalities. Although the categories used are interdependent rather than discrete, tabulating barriers and constraints in this way provides a helpful framework for identifying what can and needs to be done if the proposition that recurrent education should be a significant component of the teaching role is to receive wider recognition and support in the future.

The final section briefly examines the role of research and development in relation to the future prospects of recurrent teacher education, an appropriate note on which to conclude this report.

BARRIERS AND CONSTRAINTS CONFRONTING RECURRENT TEACHER EDUCATION AND THEIR IMPLICATIONS FOR THE FUTURE

Table 1 lists in summary form the main barriers and constraints which now appear to be confronting recurrent teacher education, categorised by their location, i.e., by source of origin. The framework provided by Table 1 could readily be adapted to look at recurrent education in a general sense or to analyse the predicaments in which other occupations may find themselves but the present focus is teaching, and more specifically, school teaching.

Although the general and particular categories of constraints incorporated in Table 1 are strongly interrelated, it is intended to comment on each in turn, drawing on other categories only when discussion demands it. Otherwise that there are complex networks of interrelationships among the categories is taken for granted. It is worth remarking at the outset, however, that the case for recurrent teacher education is argued fundamentally on educational grounds, whereas the case against, judging from existing barriers and constraints as presented in Table 1, is rarely put from an educational perspective. Clearly both pragmatism and psychological factors are highly influential determinants in the latter case.

BARRIERS AND CONSTRAINTS LOCATED IN SOCIETY

There is little need to elaborate on economic constraints. Ultimately they are tied to the Gross Domestic Product, and Education competes with Defence, Health, Social Security, Justice, etc. for its share of the total available resources. Further, within Education itself, the school sector competes with TAFE and higher education institutions for resources. At the present time TAFE is receiving an increasing share of the education budget, reflecting the politically perceived manpower needs of the economy and consequent TAFE staff needs for recurrent education.

TABLE 1
LOCATION OF BARRIERS AND CONSTRAINTS CONFRONTING
RECURRENT TEACHER EDUCATION

IN SOCIETY	IN EMPLOYING BODIES	IN TERTIARY INSTITUTIONS	IN INDIVIDUALS
Economic constraints	Financial constraints	Entry prerequisites	Role perceptions
Social constraints	Investment in existing plant	Course length, timetabling and mode of delivery	Beliefs in traditional curriculum and methods
Political priorities	Administrative structures	Staff attitudes and teaching methods	Peer influences
Present funding structures	Administrator attitudes	Non-transferability of staff	Fear of deskilling
Legal barriers	Value priorities	Course development constraints	Self-concept protection
Industrial barriers		Course funding arrangements	Stress avoidance
Profession-based resistance		Self-interest of institutions	Competence limits Low self-image as a learner Money costs Time costs Lack of perceived rewards Prior experience with in-service Lack of information Lack of guidance Institutional barriers perceived

Note: The lists in this table do not claim to be exhaustive.

Social constraints tend to be sociological and psychological in origin. For example, schooling in Australia has historically been seen as a preparation for entry into adult society and isolated from the real world. Academic qualifications are still widely perceived as an instrument of upward socio-economic mobility, as studies of parental and student expectations of schools demonstrate. Influential groups can reinforce the popular notion that to be adjudged good, schools of today should model themselves on the good schools of yesteryear. The Australian Council for Educational Standards (ACES) and the Committee Against Regressive Education (CARE) are cases in point. Employers, too, press for more emphasis in schools on student mastery of the basics. In the community as a whole, there are those who fear rapid change and the uncertainty it brings with it, others who are cynical about the value or effects of change, and others again who remain indifferent to schooling and its purposes, and hence the need for change.

Furthermore, Australian society is bound by its traditional ways of thinking about the world, for example, in regard to the new technology and the accustomed distinctions between schooling, post-school education, work, unemployment and leisure. Thus while incremental adjustments to the accepted scheme of things may be acceptable, radical changes such as equating unemployment with freedom from work, or introducing a voucher system to regulate consumption of educational services, or dismantling the existing system of schools for alternative structures are likely to be met with strong opposition.

These, then, are the sorts of social constraints which tend to inhibit change in education systems and hence work against the adoption of recurrent education theory and its implementation. The linkage is well illustrated by the opposition expressed to teacher absence during school hours to participate in inservice activities (Report of the National Inquiry into Teacher Education, 1980, p.87).

If social and economic considerations together constitute a large part of the infrastructure of schooling, political priorities are undoubtedly the superstructure. Government policy, deriving from a particular economic-social-political philosophy, shaped by compromises between the conflicting pressures of vested interest groups and supported by a sufficient proportion of electoral votes, is the ultimate authority in determining the distribution of resources in the public sector. For example, government policy determines the extent to which education systems are geared to meet manpower needs rather than, say, the social demand for education, which implies provision of and free access to appropriate educational services for all who want and are able to profit from them. Restrictions on numbers entering preservice teacher education courses illustrate the adoption of a manpower planning approach. Again, the proposition that education systems have not produced an adequate return on the considerable resources invested in them during the last decade no doubt influenced government decisions to reduce Education's budget and hesitate over committing more resources to inservice teacher education, however cogently recurrent education theory is argued on the grounds of meeting educational needs, raising the quality of education, or improving the quality of the present and future lives of school students.

In regard to the students, use of the term "Youth Policy" appears to be increasing in government and education circles. It is strongly linked with the plight of unemployed school leavers and the emergent mores and attitudes of modern youth. The concept of a Youth Policy clearly transcends conventional boundaries which demarcate such different government departments as Education, Health, Social Security, Employment and Youth Affairs, etc. and implies a co-ordinated strategy to promote the mental and physical well-being of Australian youth. Lack of co-ordination could, for example, mean that a decision is made to force 16 and 17 year olds to remain at school by making them ineligible for the dole without adequate provision being made for more teachers and facilities, as well as for inservice programs to equip teachers for the necessarily different subject area knowledge and teaching skills required to meet the needs of the different population of senior school students.

Students who leave school when they attain the legal leaving age are, in effect, saying either that they see comparatively little value in what further schooling has to offer or that they dislike school so much that they prefer to leave. If a co-ordinated, government-sponsored Youth Policy aimed to change such attitudes in students, then recurrent education for teachers at senior secondary levels could prove to be the strongest weapon in the policy's armoury.

The undervaluing of the energies, enthusiasms and potential contribution to society of 15-18 year olds (referred to above, p. 87) could be rectified: in terms of the fairytale which prefaced this book, schools would kiss frogs.

Existing funding arrangements for recurrent teacher education may also act as a barrier to recurrent teacher education, or at least to its expansion. For example, Schools Commission funds have been used to replace rather than supplement state school system funds for teacher development (Beare and van Raay, p. 9). In addition, funding priorities for staff development programs established centrally tend to determine the allocation of available funds by grassroots response, not grassroots initiatives. Sommerlad (p. 107) and Cameron (p. 53) each point to recent national reports in which proposed funding arrangements for non-award courses are problematic. Recurrent teacher education seems to be significant enough to warrant rationalisation of the diverse sources of funds for formal and informal inservice activities and the conditions under which they become available, along with provision for teacher representation and participation in funding decisions.

In addition to the socio-economic-political constraints mentioned so far, legal and industrial barriers may operate against wider implementation of recurrent teacher education. Thus the devolution of authority to the school level and school-based decision making generally, for example, create inservice needs for the development of new skills among staff, but the legal difficulties which arise in re-defining ministerial, central office, regional office and school administration responsibilities tend to retard the delegation of power in the first place.

On the industrial front, it seems fair to say that the major part of the resources and energies of teachers' unions is directed towards improving conditions of work rather than the work teachers do. Recurrent education activities, on the other hand, are concerned with the work itself.

Again, work-value inquiries, payment for further qualifications, etc., however desirable in themselves, result in higher salary levels leaving less of the education system budget for financing inservice activities. Finally, if recurrent teacher education were made mandatory out of normal school hours, it is doubtful whether its intrinsic value would adequately offset the industrial repercussions which could follow. As a profession, teaching was earlier described as beleaguered by pressures to change and the suggestion was made that professions seek to control the extent and nature of changes to be made themselves. Two examples may suffice to illustrate that teaching is not exceptional in this respect. One is the professional opposition which was mounted against the ethnic Saturday schools, clearly indicating that teaching in those schools was seen as an encroachment on territory controlled by the teaching profession armed with formal admission criteria, specialised expertise, code of ethics, etc. The second example concerns the role of teacher aides, who may supervise students under the direction of a teacher, but not teach them, even in the absence of the teacher attending an inservice activity.

Professional associations are often founded on traditional subject areas, such as English, History, Modern Languages, etc. These associations have a vested interest in maintaining the status of their discipline in the school curriculum, and may resist the introduction of new subjects.

Within teaching itself, therefore, resistance to change is to be found which may limit the extent and the nature of professionally acceptable inservice activities. However, union energy could be focussed more directly on improving inservice opportunities for teachers and professional associations can be constructively used to promote the broader ideals of recurrent education (Beare and van Raay, p. 11).

BARRIERS AND CONSTRAINTS LOCATED IN EMPLOYING BODIES

Turning now to a consideration of barriers and constraints confronting recurrent education which are to be found in the administration of school systems, a major limitation on what can be achieved is the system's income. Though non-government schools set their own levels of fees and some receive income from endowments, all school systems are financially dependent on government decisions and priorities and all are subject to industrial pressures for higher salaries and better conditions of work. The value priorities of school systems are shown in the way income is spent. For example, in a no-growth situation lower pupil-teacher ratios can only be achieved at the expense of something else, such as support and advisory services or, perhaps, inservice education.

School systems have also invested heavily in buildings and equipment, as well as in staff expertise. The transferability of existing plant to other uses is limited by the possibility of making modifications, but the costs of scrapping and replacing the plant are often prohibitive. Similarly, possibilities of redeploying specialised teaching staff to different teaching areas are limited. Both of these factors may inhibit change in school systems and thus contain recurrent teacher education needs. In addition, administrative structures may contribute to system inertia.

Finally, the attitudes of system administrators may act as a barrier to change. By seeking to protect their own status and to propagate the

system whose rewards they now enjoy, administrators may exercise their position power over hierarchical subordinates, reserving all significant decision power to themselves and, in Whitehead's (p. 172) terms, imposing institutional norms rather than enhancing personal responsibility. Thus it could be argued that the recurrent education of educational administrators should be of the highest priority if change in schools and a new conception of the teaching role are to be realised, all the more so because administrator support is a key factor in the successful implementation of change.

Lack of recognition of the fact that school systems operate within the political realities of society and hold a financially dependent status appears at times to lead to unwarranted criticism: the proper target of the critic is government policy. On the other hand, criticism may be fairly mounted against school systems on the grounds of efficiency or on the basis of the system's value priorities.

In regard to the latter, it is obvious that system administrators cannot give top priority to all competing claims on the available resources. It follows that assumptions must be made and criteria used in order to establish an order of priority which enables the allocation of resources to those service areas deemed to be in most urgent need. Hewitson (1977, p. 79) argues that the assumptions underlying the criteria used to establish priorities should be explicitly spelt out in the form of a rationale justifying policy and resource deployment decisions. Critics may still disagree with the value position thus revealed, but they may also come to a greater understanding of the political and economic constraints which limit what a school system can do. In the longer term, this approach could lead to power sharing, participation in decision processes and the acceptance of individual responsibility along the lines reported in Whitehead's (p. 170) study.

It was observed earlier that the teaching profession and its members may be aptly described as having a siege mentality in the face of a host of demands for change. The same demands, many of them conflicting, confront school systems, and confront them now during a period of unwonted financial restrictions. It is worth noting, therefore, that some recurrent teacher education activities can be mounted relatively cheaply, notably those in which the salary costs of replacing teachers attending inservice activities are minimal. This is generally the case when school improvement projects are undertaken on site. Such projects may readily conform with the principles reported by Evans (p. 151) that inservice activities be linked to specific school innovations, focus on functioning groups, involve staff in formulating the program, and receive external support. Hence many small-scale projects might be preferable on the grounds of both effectiveness and economics to large-scale projects held in a central location.

Economic constraints and staff ceilings also affect the extrinsic rewards which school systems can use to motivate teachers to participate in recurrent teacher education. Teachers are accustomed to thinking in terms of promotion and higher salary, whereas present circumstances suggest that more thought should be given to emphasising intrinsic rewards which can be associated with secondments (e.g., to tertiary and other educational institutions and even to industry), teacher exchanges, and teacher-administrator exchanges. They are all embraced by the

concept of recurrent education. More might be done, too, to facilitate a change of career for persons who find that they are not suited to teaching, though this is likely to be difficult in times of high unemployment.

Given the broader structural and social changes taking place in the societal context, school systems are already involved in providing for retirement at age 60. Although later entry into the profession arising from lengthened preservice courses, the increase in the proportion of mature age entrants into teaching and earlier retirement reduce the average working life of teachers, they share out both extrinsic and intrinsic rewards among a greater number of teachers. Job-sharing also achieves this. However, the cost of providing educational services for school students is not affected.

Paid study leave, however, perhaps along the lines recommended in the Report of the National Inquiry into Teacher Education (1980, p.88), and leave with payment of expenses incurred in attending short inservice activities seem likely to increase in their budgetary significance, as both formal and informal modes of inservice education are more fully utilised to cope with the needs of changing school systems.

BARRIERS AND CONSTRAINTS LOCATED IN TERTIARY INSTITUTIONS

It is not necessary to do more than repeat the list presented in Table 1 of constraints confronting recurrent teacher education which are located in tertiary institutions. Clearly, individuals may be barred from entry into desired courses by formal regulations and prerequisite provisions, they may be discouraged by the length of the course or the times at which it is scheduled to be taught, or they may be prevented from access because the course is not offered to them externally. Furthermore, individuals may choose to drop out of a course because it is not up to their expectations in terms of either content relevance or teaching quality, for example, if lecturers adopt attitudes and teaching methods inappropriate for students who are both adults and experienced teachers.

Tertiary institutional staff tend to be discipline-oriented specialists who cannot readily be used to develop or teach other specialised areas. Hence the non-availability of suitable courses may constrain recurrent teacher education. Furthermore course development and approval processes consume a prodigious number of manhours and may either inhibit teaching effectiveness or deter the provision of new courses.

On the other hand, it has been pointed out that Australian tertiary institutions have not generally followed the North American pattern of summer schools, short courses, etc. (Beare and van Raay, p. 10), which are self-supporting as far as the providing institution is concerned. With regard to recurrent grants, the possible super-imposing of the self-interests of the institution over the real recurrent education needs has already been alluded to (Cameron, p. 53; Sommerlad, p. 107).

In defence of tertiary institutions, however, it should be noted that in the main they, too, are financially dependent on government priorities and policies as providers of recurrent teacher education.

BARRIERS AND CONSTRAINTS LOCATED IN INDIVIDUALS

Once again, most of the constraints confronting recurrent teacher education which are listed in Table 1 as located in individuals are self-explanatory, while others have been discussed at some length in previous sections of this report. They include the way in which teachers perceive their role, their values in relation to what should be taught in schools and how they should teach it, and the influence of reference-groups and peers on their attitudes and behaviours. However, it is worth noting that although such factors are labelled constraints in this analysis, for many teachers they may operate equally strongly to encourage participation in recurrent education.

Other constraints on teacher involvement in recurrent education have to do with fear - fear of being deskilled, fear of exposing the self-concept to injury, fear of change and the stress it may bring, fear that the limits of competence have been reached, and fear that further learning will not be successfully accomplished, because of age for example, or weariness and lack of stamina, or lack of confidence in ability. Fear of study itself may be a factor, particularly if earlier experience had provided damaging to the self-image.

Another group of constraints is concerned with instrumental attitudes. Thus teachers may feel that the money costs (if any) and opportunity costs related to time are not worth it in view of the probable rewards in terms of promotion and salary increases. Time given to inservice activities held out of school hours clearly competes with time to meet home responsibilities, or to spend with friends or at leisure. Prior experience with ineffectual inservice activities may reinforce such feelings.

Finally, apart from barriers which teachers perceive tertiary institutions to impose, lack of information, help and guidance may result in non-participation in recurrent teacher education.

It is evident that in the latter groups of constraints located in individuals, school systems may be in a position to improve the esteem in which recurrent teacher education is held by providing a wider range of extrinsic reward possibilities and emphasising intrinsic motivations.

With the first two groups, on the other hand, the vast research and discursive literatures on change and innovation as they apply to individuals and groups come into their own, and time and space preclude a full discussion here. It is opportune, however, to refer briefly to Emrick's (1979) research on educational dissemination and change for inservice teacher education programs. Emerick synthesised findings across five U.S. studies which were national in scope but included in-depth case studies. Analysis of the findings enabled a number of generalisations to be drawn which applied across three different implementation models (direct intervention, capacity building and networking) used in the original studies. The generalisations bring together many of the ideas presented in the papers and discussion making up this report:

1. Meaningful change occurs as a process, not as an event.
(The personal dimension and systemic dimension unfold concomitantly.)

2. Directed personal intervention is by far the most potent technical support resource, and may be a necessary condition for many forms of utilisation.
(Personal involvement of intermediaries helps to secure broad-scale utilisation of new educational knowledge and practice. A considerable period of time may be involved.)
3. Continuous personal participation of the implementing staff is needed to firmly root and sustain the utilisation.
(Use and commitment decisions, implementation and refinements can only be made by implementing staff.)
4. Administrators occupy a crucial role in supporting the utilisation process.
(Utilisation is most effective when staff perceive it to be in their own interests as well as in the interests of authority figures).
5. Comprehensive materials resources at a "how to" level appear necessary, particularly for utilisations involving organisational or instructional change.
(Descriptive materials seem essential, but oversized instructional materials can be detrimental.)

(Emerick, 1979)

Emerick's synthesis is an appropriate point at which to conclude the present section. As a general rule, many inservice activities can readily be evaluated by participants. Findings can be publicised for professional audiences, and descriptive accounts of what positive differences the inservice program made to practice sought and disseminated, making for greater recognition of the intrinsic worth of inservice and its potential to achieve personal, professional and school renewal.

It remains now to consider what part research and development is to play in achieving such renewal. The following section is devoted to this matter.

THE ROLE OF RESEARCH AND DEVELOPMENT IN RECURRENT TEACHER EDUCATION

In this section, it is intended to review the potential contribution of research and development activities to advancing the cause of recurrent teacher education. It is accepted that the societal context of schooling is changing rapidly and that the changes are generating complex responses in the economic structure and social life of the community. Thus people are changing, schools are changing, and those working in the schools must change also.

The concept of recurrent education is founded on educational-social values which provide an ideological stance on the purposes and provision of education. In its ideal sense, the aim of recurrent education is not simply to provide access for greater numbers of people to work-oriented and specialised courses in the interests of removing economic, social and political inequities, but also to help people achieve greater control

over their own lives, experience feelings of self worth and enjoy at least some measure of self-fulfilment.

With specific regard to teaching, recurrent education, again in its ideal sense, would seek to have education systems and their political masters recognise the urgent need to reinterpret the teaching role in terms of teaching as a helping profession, a problem preventing profession (Jewett's term, Beare and van Raay, p. 22) and a community-focussed profession. Recurrent education would aim at enabling teachers to cope with their changing role as it moves from that of expert provider of educational services to that of provider of sensitive services to that of community facilitator, as envisaged, for example, by Taylor (1978, p.83). Hence both the teaching role as it is presently conceived and teachers playing out that role need to change.

With changes in role perceptions and staff attitudes, schools too must change. However, because the rate of change in the societal context is unlikely to diminish, school renewal must be viewed not as something which, once achieved, is complete, but as an in-built capacity to continue to respond effectively to continuing change on all fronts, as shifts in student populations (including more adults in classroom) and student needs occur.

It is evident that this generalised picture is one of imperatives for change: change in the purposes and nature of schooling and the direction schooling should take. Such change requires not only further conceptual and policy analyses of the options presently open to Australian school systems to guide the choice of futures, but also supporting programs of research and development. The contributors of papers included in this volume make this abundantly clear, and it would be superfluous to repeat all the issues which they have documented. Suffice it to say that one valuable service which analysts and researchers perform is to challenge assumptions, raise problematic issues and ask questions which themselves tend to clarify problems which need attention.

There are, however, some general themes which are worth noting. For example, the relationships between education (including schooling) and society are being subjected to many pressures to change. What are the implications of these emerging relationships for the teaching role and teacher education? What societal-level educational aims are implied, and how may they best be attained? What are the legal and industrial barriers which may need to be overcome in the process, and how can they be removed? To what extent are tertiary institutions injurious to the achievement of societal educational aims, both in their influence on the school curriculum and their restrictions on access to higher education?

What barriers prevent collaboration across government departments in the implementation of the Youth Policy concept, or do more desirable alternatives exist?

Again, accepting that the need for recurrent teacher education is established, are there differences among the States and Territories or between institutions in the effectiveness of existing inservice provisions? What factors may account for such differences? What needs for inservice education are perceived by different groups within society, such as teachers, administrators, parents, students, employers, and other

community members? How can the community help schools to identify societal needs and what structures are needed to facilitate community involvement in school renewal processes? What policy decisions at government and at school system levels would be needed to overcome constraints on recurrent teacher education and school renewal capacities? What collaborative relationships need to be developed between schools, administrative hierarchies, tertiary institutions, teachers centres, education centres, resource centres and other educational and non-educational agencies in order to promote continuing teacher development and school renewal? To what extent is co-ordination of preservice and inservice teacher education satisfactory? How can co-ordination of formal and informal inservice programs be accomplished without routinisation? What is to be learned from the non-formal sector of recurrent education in this regard, and what encouragements can be given to stimulate autonomous learning?

At a more specific level, case studies of schools which are achieving a capacity for self renewal could be mounted with a view to disseminating evidence of practical achievement and indicating to other institutions (1) that there is a step forward to take, and (2) that this is how it has been successfully taken. It is worth recalling, however, that heavy reliance on information giving does not always lead to action being taken - which raises another question about the training of external resource persons and their role in the change process.

Socialisation studies and action research projects involving participative techniques and collaboration between researchers and school staff in joint ventures provide other avenues both for stepping forward and for gathering useful research evidence. The role of tertiary institution staff here also warrants further consideration.

The funding of research and development activities raises other problems. It is not the role of potential funding bodies such as ERDC, the Curriculum Development Centre, the Schools Commission, the Australian Research Grants Committee, and so on, to supply funds for recurrent teacher education which should properly be drawn from normal recurrent grants and budget appropriations. Funding bodies may initiate or support particular research and development projects in accordance with priorities which they establish, and as one outcome of their activities, may recommend to the appropriate authorities that funds be made available through system channels for a more general application of certain successful recurrent teacher education models. Otherwise funding bodies may be seen to impose their priorities on the future direction of society's schools, and this is not their purpose or function.

Where, then, does the future of recurrent education lie? Initially, it might seem that government policies and priorities will determine its future, but that is only true in part. For example, the socio-economic infrastructure exerts significant influence over the formulation of government policies, and furthermore, despite pressures brought to bear by vested interest groups, it is the general electorate who passes final judgement on policy decisions.

Nor is the picture complete yet. Broad policy decisions of government are not only influenced by school systems, but also, once the decisions are made, school systems can work within government policy constraints and still retain a certain flexibility. Hence the value priorities and policies over which school system administrators have control will also help to determine the future of recurrent teacher education.

Finally, as a considerable portion of this report demonstrates, the teaching force itself will help to determine what the future holds, through teachers' unions, professional associations and classroom practitioners. The willingness and participation of those who are inevitably responsible for actually changing the teaching role and actually implementing change in schools and classrooms are clearly central to future developments in recurrent teacher education.

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